

NEW STUDIES IN GRAMMAR

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69

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New York

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8-46

PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

PREFACE

THE AUTHORS of *New Studies in Grammar* have presented the facts of grammar through subject matter that is of special interest to high-school students. For this reason all but a very few of the learning exercises are in paragraph form rather than in isolated and unrelated sentences. Furthermore, the subject matter of all the exercises in each unit deals with different phases of one general subject. The lessons of each unit are therefore interrelated in two ways: first, they deal with one general phase of grammar, and second, they are presented by means of one general subject.

In this plan of related material a section dealing with vocabulary study has its place. At the conclusion of the study of each unit, the pupils will find in the lessons presented in corresponding sections of "A Study of Words" an opportunity to enlarge their vocabularies and thus broaden their knowledge of a subject that is of vital concern to young people everywhere. The exercises in "A Study of Words" also give the pupils a basic understanding of the ways in which words are formed and in which our language has grown.

The authors of *New Studies in Grammar* have planned the Practice material so that each lesson presents three types of practice exercises. In the exposition of each lesson a sample practice exercise presents the specific grammatical information of the lesson and provides an opportunity for the pupils to work with that information before they work the assignment independently. The A Practice in each lesson consists of one or more assignments covering the grammatical facts that all pupils need to know. These facts are repeated a sufficient number of times in the A assignment to result in mastery on the part of the average students. The B Practices are of two kinds. Generally

the B Practice presents to the pupils an opportunity to use the grammatical facts in original work. At other times the B Practice presents additional grammatical facts that are not fundamental to a general understanding of the facts discussed in the lesson. These exercises are therefore intended for pupils whose abilities or interests make it possible for them to do more work than the average pupil can ordinarily do. Such lessons are designated by a star. The teacher will use the pupils' needs and abilities in deciding which of the B Practices a class or a part of the class should work. The authors believe that all units in *New Studies in Grammar* except one should be studied by all pupils. Unit Twelve may well be omitted by all except those pupils whose abilities and interests warrant the extra time demanded by the study of that unit.

The authors have provided a separate key to the Practices and a separate test for each unit. Teachers using *New Studies in Grammar* will find each test a cumulative exercise that summarizes the knowledge of the pupils on the grammatical facts presented in the unit. The test is an invaluable aid in checking pupils' mastery.

Teachers will find in *New Studies in Grammar* all the grammatical facts that are essential to an understanding of our language and its correct use in oral and written expression. Additional material is provided for pupils whose abilities and interests demand more information and further challenge. The subject matter which the pupils use in learning the essential facts of grammar provides functional use of the laws of grammar. The tests are a means for developing the mastery of functional grammar. *New Studies in Grammar*, which presents the essentials of grammar in a functional way rather than in the academic manner, is therefore a text based upon the needs and interests of high-school students throughout this country.

M. C. H.

M. N. S.

A WORD TO THE PUPIL

GRAMMAR is the study of the language you use in your speech and writing every day of your life. Probably there is no subject you use more frequently than grammar. Do you know when to use "he and I" and "him and me"? Can you use commas in the right places? When should you use a semicolon and not a comma? Do you use "whom" correctly? Or are you like some people who never use "whom" even though their language demands it? *New Studies in Grammar* will teach you when to use all these items and others too; the book will also give you so much practice with these phases of grammar that you will develop the habit of correct speech and written composition.

Probably you are thinking, "What kind of book is this?" In *New Studies in Grammar* you will find all the grammatical facts you need to know in order to learn to speak and write correctly. These facts are arranged in twelve different units. The facts of grammar in each unit are presented through a subject that interests high-school boys and girls everywhere. For example, in Unit One the first grammatical topic deals with the sentence, the basis of your thought whether you talk or write. And the facts about the sentence are presented to you through the general subject of aviation. Surely every young person living in our land today has seen an airplane flying overhead; many have flown in airplanes; and still more would like to fly from coast to coast. The other units also deal with fundamental grammatical facts which are presented by topics that are important to you.

In each lesson you will find different types of exercises. Following the explanation in every lesson is a practice exercise with explanations about the working of the exercise. Then come the A Practices which make use of the grammatical facts presented in the lesson.

When you have completed each unit, you will take a test that will indicate how well you have mastered the grammatical facts given in the unit.

As you read the exercises in each unit, you may find that you are gaining a new vocabulary. At the conclusion of each unit, turn to the section "A Study of Words" and work the brief exercises given for the unit you have just completed. In these exercises you will learn many important facts about your language and you will have an opportunity to increase your vocabulary.

If you do each lesson as you are directed in the text, you will find that when you have completed *New Studies in Grammar* you will know the basic rules of grammar and, what is more, you will use them in your speech and writing. Knowledge of the rules of grammar and the ability to use them will be a priceless possession all your life.

CONTENTS

	PAGE
Unit One. What Is a Sentence and How Is It Constructed?	1
Unit Two. The Parts of a Sentence	19
Unit Three. Word Modifiers	47
Unit Four. Phrase Modifiers	67
Unit Five. Punctuation Within Sentences	82
Unit Six. Compound Elements and Compound Sentences	111
Unit Seven. Complex Sentences	141
Unit Eight. The Spelling of Plural and Possessive Nouns	185
Unit Nine. Verbs: Their Forms and Correct Use	204
Unit Ten. The Forms and Uses of Pronouns	250
Unit Eleven. Adjectives and Adverbs	289
Unit Twelve. More About Verbs	318
A Study of Words	347
Index	373

NEW STUDIES IN GRAMMAR

UNIT ONE

What Is a Sentence and How Is It Constructed?

A sentence is a group of words that completely expresses a thought. Grammatically every sentence consists of a subject and a predicate. Why must you know what a sentence is? You will need to know because the sentence is the basis of all work in grammar. The purpose of this unit is to teach you to recognize and make sentences. In the next unit you will learn to recognize the subject and predicate.

1. A sentence completely expresses a thought.

Here are three groups of words for you to consider:

1. Into a headlong earthward plunge.
2. More exciting than a ride in a glider.
3. Circling in the fog above the landing field.

These groups of words are not sentences. Why not? They do not completely express thoughts. What is the idea about *a headlong earthward plunge*? No one knows. This group of words is merely a part, or fragment, of a sentence and gives only a fragment of a thought. The second group of words is also a fragment of a sentence. What is *more exciting than a ride in a glider*? You do not know from the expression given here. It needs more words to make it express a thought completely. A fragment of a sentence gives only a fragment of a thought. *Circling in the fog above the landing field* is only a fragment of a sentence and expresses only a fragment of a thought. Who or what

was *circling in the fog above the landing field*? You do not know.

The following groups of words are sentences. Read each aloud.

1. Every man in his turn went into a headlong earthward plunge.
2. Our wild dash on the roller coaster was more exciting than a ride in a glider.
3. Uncertain of his exact location, the pilot kept circling in the fog above the landing field.

Why do these word groups make sentences? The reason is this: each group of words is complete in itself; each completely expresses a thought.

◆ REMEMBER:

A sentence is a group of words that completely expresses a thought.

PRACTICE A

Some of the groups of words that follow are sentences, since they completely express thoughts. Others do not completely express thoughts and are fragments. Can you tell which are sentences? On a sheet of paper make a list of the numbers of the word groups that make sentences, and opposite this first list, on the same paper, make a list of the numbers of the fragments.

As they are printed here, a period ends each of these word groups whether it is a sentence or a fragment. Make sure that you yourself use periods after complete sentences only and not after fragments.

AIRPLANES TAKING OFF

1. The passenger plane came from the hangar.
2. Immediately after a thorough inspection.
3. Receiving flight orders.
4. The two pilots entered the cockpit.

5. Seating themselves before the control wheels.
6. With both feet on the rudder control pedals.
7. One pilot carefully checked all engine instruments.
8. Warming up the engine.
9. The propellers revolved with a steady roar.
10. During the loading of the plane.
11. Before the take-off signal from the tower.
12. The plane taxied to the end of the runway.
13. Ready now for the take-off.
14. On the runway ahead all was clear.
15. With attention centered on the instrument board.
16. The pilot opened the throttle wide and headed up the runway.
17. Leaving the ground very gradually.
18. Sooner than you would think.
19. Down the long runway and up into the air.
20. Taking off demands expert knowledge and skill.

PRACTICE B

It is easy to expand fragments into sentences. You can even use a single fragment in making several complete sentences. For example, take this group of words: *designing a new type of plane*. Here are three sentences in which it can be used.

1. Engineers are designing a new type of plane for use in air transport.
2. Designing a new type of plane requires expert knowledge of aeronautics.
3. By designing a new type of plane Sikorsky helped advance aviation.

Now use each of the fragments which follow in making a sentence. You can make more than one sentence with each of them.

IN FLIGHT

1. gaining altitude rapidly
2. over the airfield and the city below

3. climbing swiftly to a higher altitude
4. up above the clouds
5. with the engine functioning properly
6. skilled in navigation
7. traveling between 300 and 400 feet per second
8. with propellers whirling at full speed
9. driving an automobile and flying an airplane
10. on the wing tips
11. flying through the clouds
12. banked slightly to the right
13. tuned to receive directions
14. into the baggage compartment of the fuselage
15. at a steady speed for hours at a time
16. navigating by landmarks below
17. during flight from coast to coast
18. in a straight level flight
19. constantly watching all dials on the instrument panel
20. in cruising at high elevation

2. A fragment of a sentence presents only a fragment of thought.

Read the following groups of words and decide whether or not they are sentences:

1. One of the secrets of Doolittle's success in the raid on Tokyo.
2. Considered the most promising aviator in the class.
3. Flying through a hurricane.

Are the above groups of words sentences? You know they are not. They are fragments of sentences. Not one of them completely expresses a thought. What is said about *one of the secrets of Doolittle's success in the raid on Tokyo*? Nothing. There is no complete idea in the fragment *considered the most promising aviator*. Is *flying through a hurricane* possible? You do not know this, or anything about it, from the fragment given here.

The above groups of words can easily be changed into sentences. Read each of the completed statements aloud:

1. One of the secrets of Doolittle's success in the raid on Tokyo was his planning for all possible emergencies.
2. Considered the most promising aviator in the class, young Philip Stark met every test with superior ability.
3. Flying through a hurricane is dangerous.

Now you know the complete thought of each group of words. Since each group of words completely expresses a thought, it is a sentence.

◆ REMEMBER:

A sentence is a group of words that completely expresses a thought.

PRACTICE A

Here are more groups of words. Some are sentences. Can you tell which they are? Read all of the groups of words and list the numbers of those that do not completely express thoughts.

YOU'RE IN THE STRATOSPHERE NOW

1. Higher than birds can fly.
2. Flying to the stratosphere through the clouds.
3. At altitudes never before reached by man.
4. The temperature of the stratosphere is constant at about 67 degrees below zero.
5. Severely cold temperatures in the higher altitudes.
6. More than 65 degrees below zero.
7. In the stratosphere planes are above cloud and wind disturbances.
8. The deicer keeping ice from forming on the wings.
9. At the equator the stratosphere begins at about 50,000 feet.
10. With weather conditions affecting flight.
11. At 30,000 feet the air is so very thin that human beings have difficulty in breathing.
12. Man with the aid of oxygen masks.
13. Supercharged engines operating nearly seven miles up.

14. Air-conditioned cabins in the rare atmosphere.
15. Planes of the future flying in the stratosphere.
16. Higher and faster and safer than any other flight.
17. Stratosphere luxury liners carrying many passengers.
18. Transoceanic cargo planes flying on schedule.
19. Two American army officers in a balloon ascended into the stratosphere higher than any other explorers.
20. Much scientific information about the stratosphere.

PRACTICE B

Are you able to make each fragment into a sentence? Take each of the groups of words which does not completely express a thought and use it in writing a sentence. Begin each sentence with a capital.

3. To be a sentence, a group of words must completely express a thought.

Are the following word groups sentences?

1. Doolittle the American aviator who first bombed Tokyo.
2. The instruments which are the eyes and ears of airplane pilots.
3. The Sperry Corporation which has devoted its factory to the manufacture of delicate navigation instruments.

At a glance you may think that the first group of words is a sentence. But is it? Read it carefully. You see that no complete statement is made about *Doolittle the American aviator who first bombed Tokyo*. The expression is a fragment of a sentence and gives only a fragment of a thought.

Now read this: *The instruments which are the eyes and ears of airplane pilots*. You see that this group of words is not a sentence because it does not make a complete statement about the instruments. If the word *which* were omitted, we would have: *The instruments are the eyes and ears of airplane pilots*. That is a sentence. But the group of words as we have it has the word

which in it and so is only a fragment of a sentence. The word *which* shows that more is to be said about the instruments.

You expect a complete statement about *the Sperry Corporation which has devoted its factory to the manufacture of delicate navigation instruments*. If the expression did not have the word *which* in it, it would be: *The Sperry Corporation has devoted its factory to the manufacture of delicate navigation instruments*. This group of words is a sentence because it makes a complete statement. But these two groups are different. One contains the word *which*, and this makes the thought fragmentary. Words like *which* and *who* show that more is to be said.

Suppose you expand each of the fragments into sentences and read each aloud.

1. Doolittle, the American aviator who first bombed Tokyo, had made careful plans for the attack.
2. The instruments, which are the eyes and ears of airplane pilots, are often made by women technicians.
3. The Sperry Corporation, which has devoted its factory to the manufacture of delicate navigation instruments, has now invented a single instrument that replaces many.

As you already know, a sentence must always begin with a capital.

◆ DON'T FORGET:

1. *A sentence is a group of words that completely expresses a thought.*
2. Always begin a sentence with a capital.

PRACTICE A

Read to yourself the numbered groups of words below. Decide which are fragments and which are sentences. Make a list of those that are fragments and then make complete sentences of them.

When written correctly such sentences as these may or may

not demand commas to set off the word groups that begin with *who*, *whose*, *whom*, *which*. Whether they demand commas depends upon the exact meaning of the sentence. You are not now expected to know how to punctuate these groups of words. But if you are interested, consult pages 149-150, where you will later learn how to punctuate such sentences correctly.

FLIGHT DEMANDS PRECISION

1. A complete set of accurate instruments enables the pilot who understands their significance to fly his plane under almost any conditions.
2. The instrument panel which plays a big part in the pilot's life.
3. The altimeter which is a basic instrument found in almost all types of aircraft.
4. The navigator of the amphibian upon whom charting the course depends.
5. The airspeed indicator which registers speed.
6. On the panel is also an indicator, the altimeter, which tells the pilot at what height the plane is flying.
7. Even persons who are blind can assemble delicate aviation instruments.
8. "Flying blind" which is flying with the aid of instruments alone.
9. An engine-temperature gauge which performs the same service as the temperature gauge in an automobile.
10. An airplane clock, or chronometer, which is a real precision instrument, must not vary more than five seconds a day.
11. The student navigator who was studying his charts.
12. The bombers which made the most dangerous flights.
13. Radio which is merely a means of entertainment to many people.
14. Radio engineers who have developed many instruments for safety in flying.
15. The radio compass upon whose use the pilot depends.
16. The pilot who is flying the beam.
17. The radio technician to whom I was talking.
18. Beacon lights which flash guiding signals.

19. On the panel are instruments which measure both air speed and ground speed.
20. To the skilled pilot who flies with precision instruments.

*PRACTICE B

[Exercises marked with an asterisk (*) are optional. You might ask your teacher for directions concerning their use.]

Since you often may need to write sentences containing *who*, *whom*, *whose*, or *which*, make five original sentences that are not questions, using one of the italicized words in each sentence.

4. Only groups of words that completely express thoughts are sentences.

Are the following groups of words sentences?

1. Whenever he rode in a transport plane.
2. Although Lieutenant Ted Lawson lost his plane in bombing Tokyo.
3. If the whale had come nearer their rubber lifeboat.

Does the first group of words completely express a thought? It does not. It fails to tell what happened *whenever he rode in a transport plane*. The word group is a fragment of a sentence.

If someone should say to you, *although Lieutenant Ted Lawson lost his plane in bombing Tokyo*, you would say, "Well, what about that? Finish what you started to say." You know that the word group does not completely express a thought and is a fragment of a sentence.

If the whale had come nearer their rubber lifeboat gives only a fragment of a thought. What anyone would want to know is just what would have happened *if the whale had come nearer their rubber lifeboat*.

Expanded into sentences, the fragments could read as follows:

1. Whenever he rode in a transport plane, Winston Churchill wanted to spend most of his time in the cockpit.

2. Although Lieutenant Ted Lawson lost his plane in bombing Tokyo, he and his companions were saved.
3. The survivors would have been overturned if the whale had come nearer their rubber lifeboat.

Compare each of the complete sentences with the corresponding fragment, reading aloud first the fragment and then the complete sentence. This comparison will make clear in your mind the fact that a fragment of a sentence presents only a fragment of a thought.

◆ REMEMBER:

A sentence is a group of words that completely expresses a thought.

PRACTICE A

How well can you recognize sentences and fragments? Which of the following groups of words are sentences and which are fragments? Make into sentences those that are fragments.

PASSENGERS AND PLANES

1. When you make your first transcontinental flight.
2. If you should fly from Los Angeles to New York.
3. Each passenger as he steps into the cabin.
4. Passengers may carry only small pieces of baggage which weigh little, because space and weight are limited.
5. Until passengers and baggage are carefully weighed and loaded.
6. Although passengers are not explorers.
7. Whenever a traveler takes a trip by plane over country new to him.
8. Since airplanes require space for landing and taking off, most airports are located some distance from the center of town.
9. Passengers are required to wear safety belts when the plane takes off and lands.
10. Unless all conditions are considered safe by the pilot and the flight superintendent.

11. If either the pilot or the flight superintendent feels doubtful of the weather or the plane, he has the authority to cancel the trip.
12. While the passenger plane is in flight, meals are served by the stewardess.
13. As if the plane were not moving.
14. Unless landing can be made before darkness falls.
15. While the plane taxied to a stop.
16. Although the landing field was large, it was not well lighted.
17. Since travel by air has become so safe.
18. Because all flight conditions should be favorable for each trip.
19. Until the general public knows the small percentage of accidents.
20. When the enjoyment of traveling by passenger plane is appreciated.

PRACTICE B

Sentences often contain groups of words beginning with *if*, *since*, *until*, *unless*, *because*, *although*, *when*, *whenever*, *while*. Sometimes people make the mistake of writing such word groups as sentence fragments without actually finishing the sentences. Write a complete sentence using each of the italicized words.

5. Sentences are divided into four kinds according to their purpose. The punctuation at the end of a sentence depends upon the purpose of the sentence.

The end of every sentence must be marked by some kind of punctuation. As you read the following sentences, pay close attention to the meaning and purpose; then notice especially the mark that ends each.

1. The airplane is now an important means of transportation.
2. That plane is falling!
3. Who was the first aviator?
4. Please make that trip by plane.

Consider the first sentence: *The airplane is now an important means of transportation.* This sentence makes a statement and is ended, as you see, by a period. Such a sentence, one that makes a statement, is known as a declarative sentence. A declarative sentence should always end with a period.

That plane is falling! is an exclamation and is followed by an exclamation point. Whether a sentence is exclamatory or declarative depends upon the feeling of the one who writes it. When a person expresses surprise or strong feeling, he uses an exclamatory sentence. When such a sentence is written, it ends with an exclamation point.

Be careful in your use of the exclamation point. It is difficult to tell sometimes when you read a sentence whether it expresses surprise or strong feeling or is simply a statement of a surprising or unusual fact. If you could hear the voice or see the facial expression of the writer, you could tell. In almost any writing, you will find fewer exclamatory sentences than declarative. It is always better to consider a sentence as declarative whenever there is a doubt in your mind.

Who was the first aviator? is a question and is followed by a question mark. Sentences that ask questions are known as interrogative sentences. An interrogative sentence is always ended by a question mark.

Notice the fourth sentence: *Please make that trip by plane.* This sentence is a request and is followed by a period. A sentence that makes a request or a command is known as an imperative sentence. If the above sentence were a command, it still would be followed by a period, as: *Make that trip by plane.*

◆ REMEMBER:

1. Sentences are divided into four kinds according to their purpose.
2. A declarative sentence makes a statement and is followed by a period.

3. An interrogative sentence asks a question and is followed by a question mark.
4. An exclamatory sentence expresses strong feeling or surprise and is followed by an exclamation mark.
5. An imperative sentence makes a command or a request and is followed by a period.

PRACTICE A

Here are several complete thoughts, expressed in different forms. If you were expressing these thoughts, what punctuation mark would you use to make sure each thought was correctly interpreted? On a sheet of paper make a list of numbers from 1 to 15 and indicate the punctuation mark which should follow each sentence. Do not write in the book.

BALLOONS CAME FIRST

1. Do you know that George Washington saw one of the first balloon flights in America
2. Jean Blanchard, a French balloonist, came to America at the invitation of Benjamin Franklin
3. The earliest experiments were made with balloons, which were filled with hot air
4. Hydrogen is a gas occasionally used to inflate balloons
5. How painful a hydrogen gas burn must be
6. Since hydrogen is very flammable, helium, which is a light non-flammable gas, is used in modern balloons
7. How difficult it was for early balloonists to steer
8. Do you know that it took about one hundred years for man to discover how to develop steering apparatus for aircraft
9. How we admire the patience and courage of those early inventors
10. Leonardo da Vinci was one of the first to draw plans for a flying machine
11. Learn about the other arts of which da Vinci was a master
12. Do you know what a helicopter is
13. Count Zeppelin developed the rigid type of airship which is named for him

14. Have you ever seen a glider
15. What amazing progress has been made in aviation since the days of George Washington

PRACTICE B

The paragraph below contains sentences of all four kinds. Each sentence begins with a capital. How should each sentence be interpreted? On a sheet of paper write the numbers of the sentences, and after each number place the proper punctuation mark for that sentence.

SCIENCE TAKES TO THE AIR

¹ Would you like to know the story of *Explorer II* ² It is the story of some American scientists' ascent into the stratosphere ³ The Good-year Company built the balloon for The National Geographic Society ⁴ It was the largest balloon ever built ⁵ It had a maximum volume of 3,700,000 cubic feet ⁶ What a huge gas bag that was ⁷ Why do you suppose helium was used as the lifting gas instead of hydrogen ⁸ A spherical gondola, which could be sealed airtight, was suspended under the balloon ⁹ The gondola contained the scientific equipment with which the men were to study cosmic rays, temperature, and other problems of the atmosphere ¹⁰ A location in the Black Hills of South Dakota had been selected as a suitable place for the flight ¹¹ The first attempt to inflate the balloon failed ¹² How disappointed those scientists must have been ¹³ Finally on November 11, 1935, all conditions seemed to be satisfactory for flight ¹⁴ The take-off was made early in the morning ¹⁵ At 17,000 feet the men inside sealed the gondola and continued the flight to 72,395 feet into the stratosphere ¹⁶ What an altitude for men to reach in a balloon ¹⁷ The descent was made without accident ¹⁸ The total time in the air was eight hours and thirteen minutes ¹⁹ Imagine how excited you would have been to see the *Explorer II* landing ²⁰ Go to see the gondola, complete with most of its equipment, in the aviation section of the United States National Museum when you visit our national capital

6. Review of sentence sense.

You should now have mastered the ability to recognize sentences and fragments of sentences. You should be able to construct sentences. A sentence, you know, is a group of words that completely expresses a thought.

PRACTICE A

Copy these two articles correctly, capitalizing the first word of each sentence and inserting the proper punctuation.

MEN WHO BUILT GLIDERS

gliding was man's first attempt to fly do you know who were some of the men who first developed the glider one of the earliest accounts of gliding is about a Frenchman he claimed to have flown across the River Seine in Paris with four large paddle-shaped wings strapped to his ankles and wrists what a strange sight he must have been imagine yourself soaring through the sky with wings attached to your feet and hands the first practical glider was built in 1804 by an Englishman his work was improved upon by many other Europeans two of the first Americans to become interested in the glider were the young Montgomery brothers in 1883 they successfully flew their crude glider in the hills near their California home of course you have heard of Orville and Wilbur Wright their first experimentation in flying was carried on with kites later they built a glider which was the first to be controlled by any means other than body shifting how proud we are that this great step toward modern aviation was taken by Americans learn more about early aviation what a fascinating subject it is

AIRMAIL

what do you know about air mail one of the first uses of the airplane was to carry mail mail service by plane had been developed in many parts of the world even before the airplane was used for pas-

senger service air mail is a great help to the business world since it has cut the time of mail delivery by many hours a letter that once took five days to cross this continent can now be carried from New York to San Francisco in less than a day how greatly the airplane has changed life think how quickly you can send a letter to a friend halfway around the world

PRACTICE B

Write an original paragraph of about eight sentences in which you tell of a flight you once made or of a story you read or heard about a thrilling flight.

Books About Flyers and Flying

If you would like to know more about flying and aviation, read these books.

For technical information about planes and flying

Before You Fly, by Pearle Thurber Robinson, Frederic Middleton, George M. Rawlins, Jr., Joseph W. Phillips. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1943

Modern Flight, by Cloyd P. Clevenger. Noble and Noble, Publishers, New York, 1941

Our Airliners, by Irving Crump and Norman Maul. Dodd, Mead and Company, New York, 1940

Safety in Flight, by Assen Jordanoff. Funk and Wagnalls Company, New York, 1941

Your Wings, by Assen Jordanoff. Funk and Wagnalls Company, New York, 1940

For facts about flying a glider

Flight Without Power, by Lewin Bennitt Barringer. Pitman Publishing Corporation, New York, 1942

Youth Must Fly: Gliding and Soaring for America, by Eugene F. McDonald. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942

For the story of air mail

Couriers of the Clouds, by Edward Shenton. Macrae Smith Company, Philadelphia, 1937

For accounts of those who fly planes

Heroes of the Air, by Chelsea Curtis Fraser. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1936

Skyward, by Richard Evelyn Byrd. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1928

Women with Wings, by Charles E. Plank. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942

For true tales of flight, crash, or rescue

Flight to Arras, by Antoine de Saint-Exupéry. Reynal & Hitchcock, New York, 1939

Listen! the Wind, by Anne Morrow Lindbergh. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1938

Night Flight, by Antoine de Saint-Exupéry. Reynal & Hitchcock, New York, 1932

North to the Orient, by Anne Morrow Lindbergh. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1935

Wind, Sand, and Stars, by Antoine de Saint-Exupéry. Reynal & Hitchcock, New York, 1933

For building model airplanes

Airplane Models and Aviation, by Willis C. Brown. D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1942

Building and Flying Model Airplanes, Air Youth of America Publications. D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1941

Building Model Airplanes that Fly, by Edwin T. Hamilton. The Harter Publishing Company, Cleveland, 1935

Youth in Aviation, Air Youth of America Publications. D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1941

For stories and poems about flying

The Poetry of Flight; an Anthology, Edited by Selden Rodman. Duell, Sloan and Pearce, New York, 1941

Story Book of Aircraft, by Maud and Miska Petersham. The John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia, 1935

With Wings as Eagles: Poems and Ballads of the Air, by William Rose Benét. Dodd, Mead and Company, New York, 1940

Wonder Flights of Long Ago, by Mary E. Barry and Paul R. Hanna. D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1930

UNIT TWO

The Parts of a Sentence

Why should you know that every sentence has a subject and a predicate? The reason is that you constantly have to make sentences and you must know how to make your sentences have subjects and predicates.

1. A sentence is composed of a subject and a predicate.

Read the following paragraph.

A CHANGED WORLD

¹Radio has eliminated time and space. ²A whispered sound can be heard instantly around the world. ³The vibrations of radio travel at 186,000 miles per second. ⁴This is the speed of light. ⁵Instantaneous communication is possible by means of radio. ⁶Continents are joined by the invisible waves of ether. ⁷People everywhere can know immediately the news of the world.

Each of these sentences has two parts. In *Radio has eliminated time and space*, *radio* names what is being talked about. That is, it names the idea or the subject. For that reason *radio* is called the subject of the sentence.

In the same sentence *has eliminated time and space* makes a statement about *radio*. That group of words is called the predicate because it makes a statement, or predication, about radio, the subject.

All words in a sentence belong to either the subject or the predicate. In *A whispered sound can be heard instantly around*

the world, the subject is a *whispered sound* because it names the thing talked about. What statement is made about a *whispered sound*? It *can be heard instantly around the world*. That group of words is the predicate.

In *The vibrations of radio travel at 186,000 miles per second*, *the vibrations of radio* is the subject, and *travel at 186,000 miles per second* is the predicate. The subject names the thing that is being talked about; the predicate makes a statement about the subject.

Here is an analysis showing the subjects and predicates of the other sentences in "A Changed World":

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
⁴ this	is the speed of light
⁶ instantaneous communication	is possible by means of radio
⁶ continents	are joined by the invisible waves of ether
⁷ people everywhere	can know immediately the news of the world

◆ REMEMBER:

1. A sentence is a group of words that completely expresses a thought.
2. Every sentence has two parts, a subject and a predicate. The subject is the word or group of words that names the person or thing that a statement is made about. The predicate is the word or group of words that makes the statement about the subject.

PRACTICE A

How much do you already know about subjects and predicates? Can you analyze the sentences in the following article, showing subjects and predicates? Why not follow the form used in the above analysis?

Be certain that you select all the words that belong to the subject. For example, in *The music of a symphony orchestra is the choice of many people*, the complete subject is not *the music* but *the music of a symphony orchestra*.

RADIO ENTERTAINS

¹ Almost every person depends on radio for entertainment. ² Various programs suit the interests of the listeners. ³ The music of a symphony orchestra is the choice of many people. ⁴ Some people prefer opera. ⁵ Well-acted plays delight large radio audiences. ⁶ Comedians provide many a laugh. ⁷ Children listen to thrilling serials. ⁸ A World Series baseball game by radio interests sports fans. ⁹ The news broadcast gives information. ¹⁰ A news commentator in a foreign country describes life and events there.

PRACTICE B

Write ten original sentences and indicate the subject and the predicate of each.

2. The simple predicate is a verb.

Notice the italicized words in each sentence of this paragraph:

MARCONI INVENTED WIRELESS

¹ A young Italian by the name of Marconi *experimented* with wireless. ² The idea of wireless communication *interested* him greatly. ³ The young man *worked* day after day with his apparatus. ⁴ The persistent scientist *used* plates of tin for aerials. ⁵ His apparatus *was* very simple.

Each of these different word groups is a sentence because each completely expresses a thought and has a subject and a predicate. In *A young Italian by the name of Marconi experimented with wireless*, the predicate is *experimented with wireless* because it makes a statement about *a young Italian by the name of Marconi*.

In this first sentence, *experimented* is the main word of the

predicate. It tells what the scientist did: he *experimented*. It asserts the action of the subject. The word in the predicate that points out the action of the subject is called the simple predicate.

In *The idea of wireless communication interested him greatly*, the complete predicate is *interested him greatly*, for it makes a statement about *the idea of wireless communication*. The simple predicate is *interested* because it tells what the idea did: it *interested him*.

The next three sentences are analyzed here showing complete subjects and predicates. The simple predicate is italicized.

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
1 the young man	<i>worked</i> day after day with his apparatus
2 the persistent scientist	<i>used</i> plates of tin for aerials
3 his apparatus	<i>was</i> very simple

Worked tells what the *young man* did and is the simple predicate. *Used* tells what *the persistent scientist* did and is the simple predicate of that sentence. These two simple predicates are words of action.

The parts of an airplane or a radio have names. The words that form sentences also have names. Can you imagine an airplane mechanic or a radio repairman who doesn't know by name the parts of the machine he is repairing? Anyone who speaks our language should know the different kinds of words he uses and what they are called. Our language has different kinds of words, which are known as parts of speech.

The simple predicate is always a verb. Any word that asserts action is a verb.

In *His apparatus was very simple*, the simple predicate, or verb, is *was*. Instead of asserting action, this verb indicates condition or state of being. The condition or state of being of *his apparatus* was *very simple*. Other commonly used verbs of being are *is, are, were, been, being, become, became, seem*.

◆ THESE FACTS ARE ALWAYS TRUE:

1. Every grammatically complete sentence has a subject and a predicate.
2. The verb, which asserts the action or indicates the state of being or condition of the subject, is the simple predicate.
3. Any word that asserts action or indicates state of being or condition is a verb.

PRACTICE A

You have learned how to find the complete subject and predicate of a sentence. The next step is to find the simple predicate. Can you take this step now? On a sheet of paper analyze the sentences in the following article showing complete subjects and complete predicates, as you did the sentences on page 20. Underline the simple predicate of each sentence.

BEGINNINGS OF WIRELESS

¹ Man lives in an invisible ocean. ² Ether is one name for this ocean. ³ It fills all space. ⁴ A dropped pebble creates waves in a pool of water. ⁵ A discharge of electricity causes waves in the ether. ⁶ These waves make radio possible. ⁷ Marconi used long waves in his early development of wireless. ⁸ The young Marconi arranged two pieces of equipment. ⁹ A long wire extended into the air from one piece. ¹⁰ A second wire connected this apparatus to the earth. ¹¹ A simple telegraph key was the sending apparatus. ¹² The spark jumped a small gap in a coil of wire. ¹³ The receiving set was more than a mile away. ¹⁴ No wire joined the two sets. ¹⁵ The electrical signal crossed space to the wire of the receiving set. ¹⁶ Nickel and silver filings in a small glass tube received the signal from the wire. ¹⁷ The current then passed to a device for printing dots and dashes on tape. ¹⁸ Marconi transmitted current from his sending set. ¹⁹ He printed code characters on paper tape by this current. ²⁰ Marconi was a mile away from the printed tape. ²¹ He performed this experiment in 1895.

PRACTICE B

To be sure that you can make sentences as well as recognize them, use the following verbs as the simple predicates of original sentences: *listened, invented, used, interested, was, connected, heard, gave, received, worked.*

3. The simple subject may be a noun.

In the following paragraph one word in each sentence is italicized. What is it that that one word *does* in every sentence?

WHO DEVELOPED WIRELESS?

¹ Many *physicists* experimented with the idea of telegraphy without wires. ² *Morse* sent a signal through water without wires by means of a beam of light. ³ *Bell* conveyed a message across a large room without wires. ⁴ A famous English *physicist* by the name of Maxwell made two important discoveries. ⁵ Electric *action* passes through space in the form of waves. ⁶ These *waves* travel with the speed of light. ⁷ A modest young German *scientist* by the name of Hertz proved the existence of electric waves in ether. ⁸ *Inventors* in all countries carried the experiments further. ⁹ The practical *Marconi* finally put these scientific ideas to use. ¹⁰ This famous *man* was the father of wireless. ¹¹ Many wireless *messages* soon flew from station to station over stretches of land and sea.

In every case the italicized word is the name of the person or thing about which a statement is made. It is the one word in the complete subject that names the person or thing you are talking about. This word is called the simple subject.

Here our analysis shows the complete subjects and predicates and the simple subjects and predicates. When the complete subject consists of only one word, it is also the simple subject. In order to hear the sentences, read each complete part aloud and then name the simple part, as, "the complete subject is *many physicists*; the simple subject is *physicists*."

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
¹ many <i>physicists</i>	<i>experimented</i> with the idea of telegraphy without wires
² <i>Morse</i>	<i>sent</i> a signal through water without wires by means of a beam of light
³ <i>Bell</i>	<i>conveyed</i> a message across a large room without wires

Each simple subject in these sentences is a word that names a person or a thing. Such words are nouns. A noun, like a verb, is a part of speech. As a practice exercise analyze the other sentences in "Who Developed Wireless?"

◆ REMEMBER:

1. *Every sentence has two parts, a subject and a predicate.*
2. *The simple predicate is the verb, which asserts action or indicates state of being or condition.*
3. *The simple subject names the person or thing about which a statement is made.*
4. *Words that are names of things are nouns.*

PRACTICE A

Now that you have studied the parts of sentences, you should prove that you can analyze sentences into their complete and simple parts. On a sheet of paper analyze the sentences in the following paragraph, showing complete subjects and predicates. Underline the simple subject and the simple predicate of each sentence.

DEVELOPMENT OF RADIO

¹The old world developed wireless telegraphy. ²The United States gave radio to the world. ³A professor of electrical engineering first sent the human voice over the ether waves. ⁴Reginald Fessenden was his name. ⁵A sensitive detector for receiving electrical currents was one of his inventions. ⁶The successful development

of radio came later with the invention of the vacuum tube. ⁷ This marvelous device is a perfect transmitter for the voice. ⁸ The vacuum tube also acts as a sensitive receiver. ⁹ Another American scientist perfected this wonderful contribution to radio. ¹⁰ Lee De Forest was his name. ¹¹ The early electric light globe of Thomas Edison was the basis of the tube. ¹² The chief engineer of the Marconi Company improved Edison's tube for use in wireless. ¹³ De Forest then perfected the tube for use in radio. ¹⁴ His perfected invention became the vacuum tube. ¹⁵ The vital part of every transmitter is the tube. ¹⁶ All receiving sets utilize vacuum tubes in controlling electrical current. ¹⁷ Long-distance telephoning became a reality through the invention of the vacuum tube. ¹⁸ Airport radio beacons depend on vacuum tubes. ¹⁹ The vacuum tube really makes radio possible.

*PRACTICE B

Are you able to recognize nouns that are not subjects? The preceding paragraph contains many nouns besides those used as simple subjects. Make a list of all the nouns in the paragraph. Consult the definition of a noun on page 25.

4. The verb consists of from one to four words.

Read this paragraph and notice especially the italicized words:

RESCUE BY RADIO

¹ Radio *has become* a valuable means of rescue. ² *Have* you ever read about rescues at sea through radio? ³ The first real test of radio as a lifesaver *came* in January, 1909. ⁴ A collision between two ships *had occurred* far out at sea. ⁵ One ship *was equipped* with radio. ⁶ The radio operator *sent* out distress signals at once. ⁷ Radio operators on other ships *received* these messages. ⁸ Those ships *were* soon *hurrying* toward the damaged vessels. ⁹ People everywhere *were impressed* by the contribution of radio. ¹⁰ *Do* you *know* why? ¹¹ Many lives *had been saved* because of the radio signals.

Do you see that *has become* is the simple predicate of *Radio has become a valuable means of rescue*? The words *has become* are needed to indicate the condition of *radio*, the subject. You cannot substitute *radio has* or *radio become*. The idea is *radio has become*. The verb in the sentence consists of two words.

In *Have you ever read about rescues at sea through radio*? the verb is *have read*. It consists of two words, which are separated by other words. In questions, the entire verb may not be evident at a glance. To find the verb, you may need to reword the sentence as a statement, like this: *You have ever read about rescues at sea by radio*. Now you will be able to find the verb easily.

A verb may consist of as many as four words, for example, *heard, have heard, will hear, will have heard, will have been heard*. In all verbs of more than one word, you will find one main verb. *Heard*, in the last example, is the main verb; the other words are known as helping or auxiliary verbs. The most common auxiliary verbs are *have, had, has, were, was, is, are, been, do, did, does, can, may, could, might, shall, will, should, would*.

Below is an analysis of the first five sentences in the paragraph, "Rescue by Radio." The question in the second sentence has been reworded as a statement. Notice the verbs, especially those that consist of more than one word. The complete subject and predicate are given under the proper headings; the simple subject and predicate are italicized. Read each part aloud.

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
¹ <i>radio</i>	<i>has become</i> a valuable means of rescue
² <i>you</i>	<i>have ever read</i> about rescues at sea through radio
³ the first real test of radio as a lifesaver	<i>came</i> in January, 1909
⁴ a collision between two ships	<i>had occurred</i> far out at sea
⁵ one ship	<i>was equipped</i> with radio

As a sample exercise, analyze for yourself the other sentences in "Rescue by Radio." This sample exercise will give you a chance to work in class the kind of assignment which you will be doing by yourself when you do the Practices in this lesson. Other sample exercises in the book, however they are worded, have this same purpose — to help you prepare for your work in the Practices.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. Every sentence has two parts, a subject and a predicate.
2. The subject names the person or thing talked about; the predicate makes a statement about the subject.
3. A word that names a person, place, or thing is a noun. The simple subject is often a noun.
4. Verbs are words that show action or state of being. The simple predicate is always a verb.
5. A verb may consist of as many as four words — a main verb and auxiliary verbs.

PRACTICE A

How well are you getting along? Do you know how to analyze sentences into their complete and simple parts, even when one verb consists of as many as four words?

Show what you can do. On a sheet of paper analyze the sentences in the article which follows into complete subjects and predicates. Underline the simple subject and the simple predicate.

RADIO AT SEA

¹In early days of radio, signals were taken from the telegraph. ²No one used the letter "Q" very much. ³Everyone would recognize that letter as a special signal. ⁴Telegraphers had selected the letter "Q" for that reason. ⁵At first they used the call "CQ" as a rush signal. ⁶The letter "D" was later added as a sign of danger or a plea for help. ⁷The Marconi Company officially established

"CQD" as the distress signal on February 1, 1904. ⁸ The letters "SOS" were suggested instead of "CQD" at an international telegraphic radio convention a few years later. ⁹ The signal "SOS" is now the universal distress signal. ¹⁰ This message can be sent more quickly than any other. ¹¹ The signal is three dots, three dashes, and three dots. ¹² The letters of the signal "CQD" have never stood for words, such as "Come — Quick — Danger." ¹³ The call "SOS" is not an abbreviation of "Save Our Souls" or "Save Our Ship."

PRACTICE B

In order to have practice with important verb forms, write original sentences, using each of the following as the simple predicate of one sentence: (1) *has done*, (2) *will have gone*, (3) *has seen*, (4) *has been frozen*, (5) *had drunk*, (6) *has lain*, (7) *will be drowned*, (8) *has grown*, (9) *was taken*, (10) *had been written*.

5. The simple subject may be a pronoun.

Read the following paragraph and notice especially the italicized words. How is each used? The words are numbered for your convenience in referring to them.

FLYING THE BEAM

Mary was reading about the importance of radio in flying. Two brief statements attracted ¹ *her* attention. "Pilots fly the beam. ² *It* makes flying safe for ³ *them*." ⁴ *She* read more. "Radio signals make the beam. The beam is the merging of two radio signals into a steady hum. This hum is known as the beam. The pilot hears the hum. ⁵ *He* flies ⁶ *his* plane along the beam. The beam is about fifty feet wide at the station. ⁷ *It* is about seven miles wide a hundred miles from the station." Mary thought of ⁸ *her* brother. "Phil hears the hum. ⁹ *It* is the beam. ¹⁰ *He* flies ¹¹ *his* plane along the beam. Other pilots fly the beam. ¹² *They* come into the airport on the beam. ¹³ *They* fly ¹⁴ *their* planes from station to station on the beam. Radio plays an important part in flying." Did ¹⁵ *you* know all these

facts? ¹⁶ *We* should know more about the use of radio in flight. ¹⁷ *It* will affect most of ¹⁸ *us* in ¹⁹ *our* near future.

The first sentence that contains an italicized word is *Two brief statements attracted her attention*. *Her* is used in place of *Mary's*. In *It makes flying safe for them*, *it* means the beam and is used in place of that noun. In the same sentence *them* is used in place of the noun *pilots*. In *She read more*, *she* is used in place of the noun *Mary*.

You see that each of the italicized words is used in place of a noun. The word stands for a noun. Such words are known as pronouns. A pronoun is a part of speech.

As a sample exercise, read the paragraph "Flying the Beam," page 29, again and state the noun for which each pronoun stands.

Pronouns are often used as subjects in place of nouns. Study the following analyses of the sentences beginning with "*It is the beam*" in "Flying the Beam," and notice that pronouns are frequently used as subjects. The complete subjects and predicates are listed, and the simple subjects and predicates are italicized. The abbreviation *N* indicates that the simple subject is a noun, and *Pro* shows that the simple subject is a pronoun. The simple predicate is, of course, always a verb.

SUBJECT

⁹ *it* (Pro)

¹⁰ *he* (Pro)

pilots (N)

¹² *they* (Pro)

¹³ *they* (Pro)

radio (N)

¹⁵ *you* (Pro)

¹⁶ *we* (Pro)

¹⁷ *it* (Pro)

PREDICATE

is the beam

flies his plane along the beam

fly the beam

come into the airport on the beam

fly their planes from station to station on the beam

plays an important part in flying

did know all these facts

should know more about the use of radio in flight

will affect most of us in our near future

As a sample exercise, analyze the first 14 sentences in "Flying the Beam" and state the part of speech of each simple subject.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. Every sentence has a subject and a predicate.
2. The simple predicate is always a verb.
3. The simple subject is a noun or a pronoun.
4. A pronoun is a word that is used in place of a noun. A pronoun may be used as the subject in place of a noun.

PRACTICE A

Practice makes perfect. This is an old saying, but as true of mastering grammar as of driving a car or flying an airplane. For more practice, analyze the sentences in the next paragraph into complete and simple subjects and predicates, as you have done previously. Indicate whether the simple subject is a noun or a pronoun. What part of speech is the *simple predicate*?

RADIO IN FLIGHT

¹ A passenger plane is taking off from Chicago to New York. ² It has a crew of pilot, copilot, and stewardess. ³ The pilots will fly the plane. ⁴ They have taken their seats. ⁵ They adjust their earphones. ⁶ The pilot has already made his flight plan. ⁷ The receiver on the plane is tuned to the wave length of the airport's beam. ⁸ The control tower gives him the signal for the take-off. ⁹ He climbs gradually to his flight level. ¹⁰ He is now riding the radio beam. ¹¹ Its signal is a steady hum. ¹² The pilots hear the signal constantly. ¹³ They eventually come to a cone of silence. ¹⁴ The lack of signals indicates to them the presence of another airport. ¹⁵ They fly on. ¹⁶ Then they again receive signals. ¹⁷ These signals form the beam of the next radio range station. ¹⁸ These trained pilots ride one beam after another from Chicago to New York.

PRACTICE B

Have you learned to recognize pronouns? To prove that you have, make a list of all the pronouns in the preceding para-

graph, and opposite each pronoun state the noun for which the pronoun stands.

6. The order of the sentence may be inverted.

In the sentences you have studied in this unit the subject has always been stated first and the predicate has followed. This order of words is known as regular order. In many sentences some or all of the words belonging to the predicate come before the subject. This order of words is known as inverted order. Whenever you analyze sentences that have inverted order, you must make sure you have found the complete subject and the complete predicate.

Study the sentences in this paragraph.

THE WONDERS OF TELEVISION

¹ Have you ever seen a radio program in your home? ² Someday many people will watch radio shows by their own firesides. ³ How can a person see actors miles away in a studio? ⁴ Surely you know the answer to this question. ⁵ Television sets generally present the action of a scene in a broadcasting station. ⁶ They also broadcast the sounds. ⁷ By means of the microphone the sounds leave the studio. ⁸ The television camera picks up the action. ⁹ Someday television sets may be in every home. ¹⁰ Then you will see by radio. ¹¹ You will watch events of national importance in your home, perhaps miles away from Washington, D.C. ¹² In some homes sports fans will see football games. ¹³ In other homes the World Series baseball games will attract the attention of baseball fans. ¹⁴ How fascinating broadcasts will be then!

As a sample exercise, suppose you analyze the above sentences, showing subjects and predicates. In *Have you ever seen a radio program in your home?* the auxiliary verb *have* is stated first. This word throws the sentence into inverted form. Restate the sentence with the subject first. Here it is: *You have ever seen a*

radio program in your home? Now you can easily find the complete and simple subject and predicate. Questions are generally stated in inverted order, and sometimes other sentences are inverted for the sake of emphasis.

The sentences that do not begin with the subject are analyzed below into their complete and simple parts. First read each sentence as it appears originally in the paragraph. "The Wonders of Television," page 32. Then read aloud the same sentence as stated here in regular order with the subject first and the predicate following. Note the italicized simple subject and simple predicate in each sentence. The abbreviation indicates the part of speech of each simple subject and simple predicate. *V* is the abbreviation for verb.

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
¹ <i>you</i> (PRO)	(v) (v) <i>have ever seen</i> a radio program in your home
² <i>many people</i> (N)	(v) (v) <i>will someday watch</i> radio shows by their own firesides
³ <i>a person</i> (N)	(v) <i>can see</i> actors miles away in a studio how
⁴ <i>you</i> (PRO)	(v) surely <i>know</i> the answer to this question
⁷ <i>the sounds</i> (N)	(v) <i>leave</i> the studio by means of the microphone
⁹ <i>television sets</i> (N)	(v) (v) <i>may someday be</i> in every home
¹⁰ <i>you</i> (PRO)	(v) (v) <i>will then see</i> by radio
¹¹ <i>you</i> (PRO)	(v) (v) <i>will then watch</i> events of national importance in your home, perhaps miles away from Washington, D.C.

12 sports fans (N)	(v) (v) in some homes will see football games
13 the World Series baseball games (N)	(v) (v) will attract in other homes the attention of baseball fans
14 broadcasts (N)	(v)(v) will be how fascinating then

Now that you have read the analysis of most of the sentences, turn back to the paragraph in which they appear. Take a piece of paper and write your own analysis of each sentence in the paragraph.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. Every sentence has a complete subject and predicate and a simple subject and predicate.
2. The simple subject is a noun or a pronoun; the simple predicate is a verb.
3. In regular order the subject is stated first and the predicate follows. In inverted order a part or all of the predicate is stated first.

PRACTICE A

The sample exercise you have done should have given you mastery in finding the complete and simple parts of sentences. Prove that you have mastery by analyzing the sentences of the paragraph that follows into complete subjects and predicates. Underline the simple subject and the simple predicate. Indicate the part of speech of each simple subject and simple predicate.

SEEING BY RADIO

¹ In a broadcasting station a television studio looks like a motion-picture set. ² The actors are flooded in bright light. ³ On the light and shadows in the scene depends the success of the television broadcast. ⁴ Back and forth microphones swing on long rods. ⁵ They must follow the actors closely. ⁶ They broadcast the sounds. ⁷ The cam-

craman wheels his intricate television camera into position. ⁸ What a wonderful machine it is! ⁹ The lens is turned toward the actors. ¹⁰ On the "mosaic," a plate in the camera, a picture of the actors is focused instantly. ¹¹ Out through the ether on very short waves television travels. ¹² Every second thirty complete pictures are sent out from this plate. ¹³ On the receiving screen this rapid succession of pictures becomes continuous motion. ¹⁴ The television receiving set looks like a cabinet radio. ¹⁵ A receiving set is equipped with a screen. ¹⁶ To this screen comes the electrical beam. ¹⁷ The material of the screen is fluorescent. ¹⁸ It glows like light. ¹⁹ The tiny electrical impulses reproduce the scene on the screen. ²⁰ The movements of the actors in the broadcasting studio are seen in a picture on the television screen.

PRACTICE B

Inverted order gives variety to the sentences you write. Suppose you write a paragraph on any topic of your choice. When you have completed the paragraph, see whether you can get variety by inverting one of the sentences or by putting a part of the predicate before the subject of the sentence. Try to select a sentence that will gain in emphasis or effect through being inverted. Maybe a question will do the trick. Be sure to punctuate the end of each sentence correctly. Remember that in this paragraph each sentence must have a subject and a predicate.

7. The meaning of the verb may be completed by a noun or pronoun.

Read the sentences in the following paragraph and notice that each italicized word completes the meaning of the verb of the sentence.

A MODERN BROADCASTING STATION

¹ A large broadcasting station is a fascinating *place*. ² One large western station has eight different *studios*. ³ Above all else the com-

pany has put the *importance* of good broadcasting. ⁴ The doors of each studio are *soundproof*. ⁵ Cushions of felt separate each *studio* from the rest of the building. ⁶ Triple glass between the studio and the control room makes clear *broadcasting*. ⁷ Dead air space in the walls permits no *vibrations*. ⁸ National networks present many different *programs*. ⁹ They are heard all over the country. ¹⁰ During a day this great station sends out more than a hundred *programs*. ¹¹ Generally the station goes on the air at 6 A.M. ¹² Regularly it signs off at 1 A.M. ¹³ Sometimes in an emergency it operates for twenty-four hours at a stretch. ¹⁴ People from coast to coast hear familiar *voices* over this station.

What are the simple parts of *A large broadcasting station is an interesting place*? The simple subject and predicate of this sentence are *station is*. Now ask the question: *station is what*? The answer is: *station is place*. The word *place* is another item in the sentence. *Place* is called the complement* of the verb because it completes the verb by telling "what" the station is.

Read this sentence: *One large western station has eight different studios*. Select the simple subject and the simple predicate; then add the word "what": *station has what*? The answer is *station has studios*. *Studios* is the complement of the verb because it tells what the *station has*; it completes the verb by telling *what*.

The complements in these two sentences are nouns. The complement of a verb may be a noun or a pronoun.

The next five sentences in the paragraph are analyzed here showing their complete and simple parts. The complement of each verb is underlined twice. Read each sentence aloud, giving first the complete and simple subject, then the complete predicate, the simple predicate, and the complement of the verb. Name each item.

* Do not confuse *compliment* with *complement*. These words have two very different meanings. Look them up in your dictionary. Can you spell each correctly?

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
³ the <u>company</u>	has put the <u>importance</u> of good broadcasting above all else are <u>soundproof</u>
⁴ the <u>doors</u> of each studio	<u>separate</u> each <u>studio</u> from the rest of the building
⁵ <u>cushions</u> of felt	<u>makes</u> clear <u>broadcasting</u>
⁶ triple <u>glass</u> between the studio and control room	<u>permits</u> no <u>vibrations</u>
⁷ dead air <u>space</u> in the walls	<u>present</u> many different <u>programs</u>
⁸ national <u>networks</u>	

Now notice this sentence: *They are heard all over the country.* Select the simple subject, the simple predicate, and the complement. To find the complement you ask: *they are heard what?* No word in the sentence answers the question. *All over the country* tells "where," not "what." The verb *are heard* has no complement.

Analyze *Regularly it signs off at 1 A.M.* Take the simple subject and the simple predicate and ask "what?" *It signs off what?* No word tells "what"; *signs off* has no complement. The same is true of *Sometimes in an emergency it operates twenty-four hours at a stretch.* *Operates* has no complement.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. A sentence may have in it a word that completes the verb by telling "what"; such a word is called the complement of the verb. (Only the word that answers the question "what" is a complement. Not all verbs have complements.)
2. The complement of the verb may be a noun or a pronoun.

PRACTICE A

Can you find the complement of a verb? Analyze each sentence in the following article into subject and predicate and complement. Underline the simple subject and simple predi-

cate once and the complement of the verb twice. Indicate the part of speech of each simple subject and simple predicate.

IN A BROADCASTING STATION

The Newsroom

¹ One important part of every large broadcasting station is the newsroom. ² Each broadcaster has a desk. ³ Clocks on the wall register the time of day in cities all over the world. ⁴ Several teletypes stand in a corner. ⁵ The teletype prints automatically. ⁶ It is operated electrically from a national news service. ⁷ A roll of paper unreeled from it constantly. ⁸ News items are printed on the paper. ⁹ Newscasters study these news items with great care.

The Music Library

¹ Another important room in a broadcasting station is the music library. ² Its walls are lined with shelves of sheet music. ³ Volumes of music records fill large cabinets. ⁴ Almost every American song can be found here. ⁵ Complete scores of musical comedies are included in this enormous library. ⁶ All music is catalogued carefully. ⁷ The attendant can find any number instantly.

PRACTICE B

In order to have practice in using complements, write ten sentences, in each sentence using one of these verbs and a complement: *ran, constructed, broadcast, selected, did, drove, flew, utilized, operated, written.*

8. The complement of a verb tells what something or someone does or is.

You have learned that verbs often have complements. That is, a word in the predicate completes the verb by telling what someone or something does or is. Both verbs of action and verbs that show state of being, or condition, such as *be, seem, become*, may have complements.

In the following brief article, "Working in Radio," every italicized word is a complement. As a sample exercise, jot down the numbers of the sentences that contain complements. After each number write the verb which the complement in that sentence completes. State whether it is a verb of action or a verb of being.

WORKING IN RADIO

¹ A large radio station gives *work* to many people. ² A job of importance is the *position* of program director. ³ The director takes *charge* of all programs at the station. ⁴ His work is very *difficult*. ⁵ Every program must run smoothly. ⁶ With more than a hundred broadcasts a day the program director has a very important *job*. ⁷ He must create *programs* of all kinds for the public. ⁸ A large broadcasting station hires several *announcers*. ⁹ Their work demands good *training*. ¹⁰ Their voices must be *pleasant*. ¹¹ A radio announcer must have a pleasing *personality*. ¹² He must read the *script* smoothly. ¹³ He must pronounce many foreign *words* correctly. ¹⁴ He should not make *errors* in his announcements. ¹⁵ Entertainers of all sorts are hired by radio stations. ¹⁶ Are you a *singer*? ¹⁷ The public may like your *voice*. ¹⁸ Can you act? ¹⁹ You might get a *job* on the radio. ²⁰ Can you write *stories*? ²¹ Can you make *jokes*? ²² Radio stations want capable *entertainers* in all these fields.

Did you have any difficulty in finding the verb that each complement completes? If you did, you should stop right here and review Lesson 7. Then you should discuss with your teacher and classmates the complements in the paragraph you have just read.

When you can recognize verbs and their complements and verbs that have no complements, you are ready to study the different kinds of complements.

In *A large radio station gives work to many people*, *gives* is an action verb and its complement is *work*. The complement of an action verb is known as a direct object of a verb or simply a direct object. In *He takes charge of all programs at the station*,

the verb is *takes*. Because *takes* is an action verb, the complement *charge* is a direct object. The complement that completes an action verb is always a direct object.

Now find the verb and its complement in *A job of importance is the position of program director*. You recognize *is* as a verb of being. *Job* is what? *Position* is the answer to the question. *Position* is the complement of *is*. A noun in the predicate which completes the meaning of a verb of being and tells what the subject is, is called a *predicate noun*.

Now find the verb and its complement in *His work is very difficult*. Again we have *is*, a verb of being. *Work* is what? *Difficult* answers the question. *Difficult* is the complement of *is*. Notice that *difficult* describes the subject *work*. Any word that describes a noun is called an adjective. This complement, which describes the subject, is called a predicate adjective. A predicate adjective may be used to complete a verb of being.

In order to decide whether the complement of a verb is a direct object or a predicate noun or predicate adjective, you must determine what kind of verb the simple predicate is. If the complement completes a verb of action, it is a direct object. If the complement completes a verb of being, it is a predicate noun or predicate adjective.

In *Every program must run smoothly*, the simple subject and the simple predicate are *program must run*. To find the complement, ask *program must run what?* There is no word to answer this question. *Smoothly* tells "how," but it does not tell "what." *Must run* has no complement.

Next study this sentence: *With more than a hundred broadcasts a day the program director has a very important job*. The simple subject, predicate, and complement are *director has job*. What kind of complement is *job*? Look at the verb *has*. It is an action verb because it indicates the action of possessing. *Job* is a direct object. You know that *job* is not a predicate noun because it does not name the subject *director*.

Study the sentences in "Working in Radio" and make a list of the simple subjects, the simple predicates, and the complements. Indicate the kind of complement each is by writing *do* after each direct object, *PRED N* after each predicate noun and *PRED ADJ* after each predicate adjective. The first ten sentences are analyzed here. Check the others with your teacher.

SIMPLE SUBJECT	SIMPLE PREDICATE	COMPLEMENT
1. station	gives	work (do)
2. job	is	position (PRED N)
3. director	takes	charge (do)
4. work	is	difficult (PRED ADJ)
5. program	must run	
6. director	has	job (do)
7. he	must create	programs (do)
8. station	hires	announcers (do)
9. work	demands	training (do)
10. voices	must be	pleasant (PRED ADJ)

Direct objects, which complete action verbs, are always nouns or pronouns. Verbs of being may be completed by predicate nouns or by predicate adjectives. A verb of being may also be completed by a pronoun. Suppose, instead of asking, "Are you a singer?" we changed the sentence slightly to ask, "Are you *she*?" *Are* is a verb of being. Its meaning is completed by the pronoun *she*. *She* is called a predicate pronoun.

◆ REMEMBER:

1. *The complement of a verb completes the verb by telling what something or someone does or is.*
2. *A direct object completes the meaning of a verb of action and is a noun or a pronoun.*
3. *A verb of being is completed by a predicate noun, a predicate pronoun, or a predicate adjective.*
4. *Any word that describes a noun is an adjective.*

PRACTICE A

You should now be able to analyze a sentence into its complete and simple parts. And, besides, you should know what kind of complement completes each verb. Prove that you have mastered this part of grammar.

On a sheet of paper analyze each of the sentences in the following article, showing the complete subject and predicate. Underline the simple subject and predicate once and the complement twice. Indicate the part of speech of each of these items. Also indicate the kind of complement. Follow this sample:

SENTENCE: A large radio station provides much work.

(N)	(V)	(N)(D O)
a large radio <u>station</u>	<u>provides</u> much <u>work</u>	

JOBS IN RADIO

¹ In the field of radio, ambitious young people have unlimited opportunities. ² The radio operator at sea holds an important job.

³ Every ship now carries radio equipment for the safety of crew and passengers. ⁴ This job offers travel as an attraction. ⁵ The radio operator must have a license. ⁶ His examination for a license includes

knowledge of radio apparatus. ⁷ He must send twenty words a minute in Continental Morse Code. ⁸ His ability in receiving messages

is also tested. ⁹ The radio operator on an airplane does similar work. ¹⁰ Commercial planes are equipped with radio devices. ¹¹ The radio

operator understands their operation. ¹² His training is scientific. ¹³ He must pass rigid examinations on radio laws and regulations.

*PRACTICE B

A group who wish to undertake an optional experience should write a paragraph dealing with radio. Let the sentences be rather short. See that the paragraph contains the different kinds of complements. The group will then make lists of the subjects,

predicates, and complements. The leader of the group will write these three lists on the board but not in their original order.

The others in the class will write the sentences, matching the three lists so that each predicate has the proper subject and complement. Indicate the kind of complement each verb has.

9. Review of the parts of a sentence.

In this unit you have learned some important facts that you must master before you can successfully do the lessons in the next unit. Check your knowledge of these facts and prove your ability to make use of them.

◆ HERE ARE THE FACTS YOU SHOULD KNOW:

1. *Every sentence completely expresses a thought.*
2. *Every sentence has a subject and a predicate.*
3. *The simple subject of a sentence is a noun or a pronoun. A noun is a word that is a name of something. A pronoun is a word that is used in place of a noun.*
4. *The simple predicate of a sentence is a verb. Verbs show action or indicate condition or state of being. A verb can consist of one to four words.*
5. *The word that completes a verb by telling what someone or something is or does, is called a complement.*
6. *An action verb is completed by a direct object. It is a noun or pronoun.*
7. *The complement of a verb of being names the subject or describes the subject. It may be a predicate noun, a predicate pronoun, or a predicate adjective.*
8. *A word that describes a noun is called an adjective.*
9. *The kinds of words used in speech and writing are called parts of speech.*

As a sample exercise use the sentences in the paragraph "What Is Coming in Radio?" and point out as many of the nine facts as you can. Take, for example, the words: Remark-

able advances have been made in radio since its beginning in 1895, and follow this model in your analysis:

1. This group of words is a sentence because it completely expresses a thought.
2. It contains a subject *Remarkable advances* and a predicate *have been made in radio since its beginning in 1895*.
3. The simple subject is the noun *advances*.
4. The simple predicate is the verb of action, *have been made*.
5. There is no word which completes the verb by telling *what* its subject does or is. The verb, then, has no complement.

WHAT IS COMING IN RADIO?

¹ Remarkable advances have been made in radio since its beginning in 1895. ² Scientists have barely scratched the surface of the possibilities of radio. ³ Radio waves have undiscovered uses. ⁴ In the coming years scientists will extend the use of radio. ⁵ Doctors will doubtless develop the use of radio waves for healing. ⁶ Scientists will perfect ways of controlling airplanes without human pilots. ⁷ In the future all phases of life will be greatly affected by radio. ⁸ Radio will utilize power for all sorts of things. ⁹ Newspapers may be broadcast to radio receivers in your homes. ¹⁰ In the morning you may find your newspaper printed by your radio during the night. ¹¹ Some day letters will be sent a thousand miles away in a few seconds.

You should take considerable satisfaction in having mastered the information given in this unit. Prove that you have mastered this unit by working the following assignments.

PRACTICE A

On a sheet of paper analyze each of the sentences in the following articles into complete subjects and predicates. Underline the simple subject and simple predicate once and the complement twice. Above these three items indicate the part of speech of each. Also indicate the kind of complement. See page 42 for a sample.

RADIO IN THE FUTURE

Radar Will Make Travel Safe

¹ What is radar? ² How does radar work? ³ This explanation is a simple answer. ⁴ Radar continuously sends out short waves. ⁵ These waves travel at the speed of light, 186,000 miles a second. ⁶ Weather does not affect them. ⁷ They bounce back upon striking any ship or airplane. ⁸ Their findings are then shown on the radar instruments. ⁹ Radar indicates facts about the altitude, speed, and direction of approaching planes.

Radio on Planes

¹ Future passenger airliners will use radar in many ways. ² Services from the ground will follow airliners in their flight. ³ Radiophones will connect the plane with the ground at all times. ⁴ Pilots will receive directions by radio. ⁵ Landing operations will be controlled in fog or storm. ⁶ Radar can locate storm centers. ⁷ Airliners will avoid their fury by changing course.

*PRACTICE B

Suppose you check on one another to make certain that all have mastered the information about subjects and predicates given in this unit. Write sentences in which the following conditions are observed: (1) the subject is a noun and the direct object is a pronoun and the verb consists of two words; (2) the subject is a pronoun and the direct object is a noun and the verb consists of three words; (3) the meaning of the verb is completed by a predicate noun; (4) the meaning of the verb is completed by a predicate adjective; (5) the verb indicates state of being but has no complement.

Books About Radio

If you are interested in radio, you may like to read these books:

Making a Living in Radio, by Zeh Bouck. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1935

Old Wires and New Waves, by Alvin Fay Harlow. D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1936

On the Air, by J. J. Floherty. Doubleday, Doran and Company, Garden City, New York, 1937

Popular Television, by H. J. Barton Chapple. Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, Ltd., London, 1935

Radio As a Career. Career Research Monographs, The Institute for Research, 537 Dearborn Street, Chicago, Illinois

Radio—From Start to Finish, by Franklin M. Reck. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1942

SOS to the Rescue, by Karl Baarslag. Oxford University Press, New York, 1937

UNIT THREE

Word Modifiers

Certain words in sentences are used to modify, that is, to change or give additional meaning to other words. It is important for you to know *modifiers* and how to use them. There is a great deal of difference, for example, in referring to your fellow student Don as *good* or *bad*. These words modify the impression you wish to give of him. In this unit word modifiers and their use are presented.

1. Adjectives are used to modify nouns.

You have learned that a word which describes a noun is an adjective. You know that a predicate adjective is an adjective in the predicate that describes the subject. Not all adjectives are used in this way, however.

Read the following paragraph and notice that the italicized words are adjectives which describe subjects, direct objects, predicate nouns; or are predicate adjectives.

A JOB FOR EVERYONE

¹ Every *normal* person desires a *pleasant* vocation. ² He wants his *chosen* work. ³ All *ambitious* men plan their lifework. ⁴ They must make a *necessary* living. ⁵ An *artistic* woman designs a *stunning* hat. ⁶ An *attractive* woman sells it. ⁷ A *creative* architect plans a *modern* building. *Tireless* workers follow his *exact* plans. ⁸ A *loyal* mother prepares *delicious* meals. ⁹ A *devoted* father earns the *family* money. ¹⁰ Most people enjoy a *good* job. ¹¹ This *universal* interest is a *com-*


mon urge. ¹² All *constructive* work is *valuable*. ¹³ Many *intelligent* high-school students choose a *vocational preparatory* course.

In *Every normal person desires a pleasant vocation* the simple subject, simple predicate, and object are *person desires vocation*. The meaning of the noun *person* is changed or modified by the adjective *normal*. Suppose the adjective had been *abnormal*. The meaning of *every abnormal person* is different from that of *every normal person*. You understand now why an adjective is said to modify the meaning of a noun. *Every* is also an adjective modifying the noun *person*.

In your study of the use of words in sentences, you will need to use some graphic way of showing the relation of one word to another in a sentence. Many people have found the following device very satisfactory.

SENTENCE: Every normal person desires a pleasant vocation.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE	(D O)	
<u>person</u> (N)	<u>desires</u> (V)	<u>vocation</u> (N)	
normal (Adj)		pleasant (Adj)	
every (Adj)		a (Adj)	

You first draw a perpendicular line to show that the sentence has two parts: a subject and a predicate. Next you write the simple subject in the first column and the simple predicate in the second column. Underline these words once and indicate the part of speech of each. On the same line with the verb or simple predicate and after it, write the complement and underline it twice. Indicate the part of speech after each word and the kind of complement above the word. Finally, place under the subject and the complement any words that modify them, and indicate their parts of speech. *Every* and *normal* modify *per-*


son; *a* and *pleasant* modify *vocation*. This is a graphic analysis of the sentence.

Here is the analysis of sentence 2.

SENTENCE: He wants his chosen work.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE	(D O)
<u>he</u> (Pro)	<u>wants</u> (V)	<u>work</u> (N)
		chosen (Adj)
		his (Pos Pro)




Notice that two words modify the direct object *work*: the adjective *chosen* and the possessive pronoun *his*. Sometimes students who are studying foreign languages call a possessive pronoun a "possessive adjective." In this book any pronoun that is used to show possession will be called a possessive pronoun.

The next sentence is analyzed in this way into subject, simple predicate, complement, and word modifiers:

SENTENCE: All ambitious men plan their lifework.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE	(D O)
<u>mēn</u> (N)	<u>plan</u> (V)	<u>lifework</u> (N)
ambitious (Adj)		their (Pos Pro)
all (Adj)		



As a sample exercise analyze the other sentences in the paragraph "A Job For Everyone." Find the subject, simple predicate or verb, complement, and word modifiers in each sentence. Indicate the part of speech of each word.

A few items should be noted. (1) *The*, *a*, and *an* are always adjectives. They are sometimes known as "articles," but in this book they will be called adjectives. (2) Whenever a verb form is used to modify a noun, it will be considered an adjective. For example, *chosen* in *his chosen work* is a verb form, but it is not the predicate. Since it modifies the noun *work*, it is an adjective. The part of speech of any word depends upon its use in the sentence. (3) Whenever a word that is generally a noun is used to modify a noun, it is an adjective. An illustration of this fact is *high-school course*. The word group *high-school* is used as one word to modify *course* and is an adjective. You see that the use of a word in a sentence decides its part of speech in that sentence.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS ABOUT ADJECTIVES:

1. *An adjective may be used as a predicate adjective to complete a verb of being.*
2. *Adjectives are used as modifiers of nouns.*

PRACTICE A

On a sheet of paper analyze the sentences of the following article into subject, predicate, verb, complement, and word modifiers. Indicate the part of speech of each word and the kind of complement. Follow the examples on pages 48 and 49.

Watch for inverted order in interrogative sentences, that is, in sentences that ask questions. Remember that the subject is not stated first in such sentences. Find the verb, then the subject and the complement.

STUDY YOURSELF FIRST

¹ A lifework needs intelligent planning. ² Unplanned work causes an unsuccessful life. ³ The first requirement is honest self-appraisal. ⁴ You can study different jobs. ⁵ A wise choice will follow your serious study. ⁶ Systematic training must follow your choice. ⁷ All worth-while jobs have certain important requirements. ⁸ Are you neat? ⁹ Careless habits mar personal appearance. ¹⁰ An untidy person may lose a coveted promotion. ¹¹ Are you a friendly person? ¹² Real kindness is friendliness. ¹³ A well-adjusted person co-operates. ¹⁴ Have you developed an absorbing interest? ¹⁵ Do you enjoy a hobby? ¹⁶ Does it demand long hours? ¹⁷ Do they seem short? ¹⁸ Your present special interest may become your lifework.

PRACTICE B

To enlarge your use of adjectives as modifiers, write ten original sentences in each of which both the subject and the complement are modified by adjectives. Present your sentences to your classmates and have them find the adjectives you have used as modifiers.

2. Some adjectives number and limit.

You have learned that adjectives describe nouns. They also limit and number nouns. In the following paragraph adjectives that number or limit are italicized.

OFFICE JOBS

¹ The commercial field interests *many* competent students. ² *One* reason is the excellent high-school commercial courses. ³ Commerce involves *several* different activities. ⁴ *All* business demands efficient record-keepers. ⁵ *Such* work is commercial. ⁶ *Another* important commercial worker is the cashier. ⁷ He handles much money. ⁸ A *third* commercial worker is the bookkeeper. ⁹ His records must be accurate. ¹⁰ *Some* large firms hire a *hundred* clerks. ¹¹ *Such* jobs in-

volve different workers. ¹² The filing clerk performs *certain* tasks. ¹³ The order clerk handles *all* orders. ¹⁴ Secretaries are *other* commercial workers. ¹⁵ Their duties include *many* details. ¹⁶ Large business houses hire typists. ¹⁷ They must be typing experts. ¹⁸ *Most* business houses hire stenographers. ¹⁹ They write shorthand. ²⁰ The commercial field has *many* opportunities. ²¹ *Few* occupations offer *more* jobs. ²² You should consider the high-school commercial offerings.

Such adjectives as *many*, *one*, *this*, *every* do not describe nouns; they limit or number nouns.

The paragraph, "Office Jobs," contains other adjectives as well as those that limit or number. As a preliminary exercise make a list of all the adjectives that modify, and after each write the noun it modifies. You may omit the adjectives *a*, *an*, and *the*. You will find that the adjectives describe nouns or number or limit them.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. *A word that modifies a noun is an adjective.*
2. *Adjectives modify nouns by describing, numbering, or limiting.*

PRACTICE A

You need practice in analyzing sentences graphically. On a sheet of paper analyze the sentences of the following paragraphs, showing graphically the subject, verb, complement, and word modifiers of each sentence. Name the part of speech of each word and indicate the kind of complement.

THE COMMERCIAL COURSE

Tool Subjects

¹ Do you recognize the many different commercial subjects? ² The commercial course has several required tool subjects. ³ Business English is a tool subject. ⁴ Arithmetic is another tool subject.

Business Practice

¹ Business practice includes much clerical information. ² This course includes systematic filing. ³ Pupils study general office procedure. ⁴ They learn good business attitudes.

Bookkeeping

¹ This subject develops accurate recording. ² The high-school students learn fundamental principles. ³ Can you budget your finances? ⁴ Do you record your monthly expenditures? ⁵ Bookkeeping gives such training. ⁶ Accounting is advanced bookkeeping.

Stenography

¹ Is your penmanship legible? ² Is correct spelling your long suit? ³ Stenography requires these skills. ⁴ One requisite is speed. ⁵ Another requirement is accuracy. ⁶ The stenographer must be a good typist. ⁷ Every commercial student takes typewriting. ⁸ Accurate typing demands correct fingering. ⁹ Correct fingering requires constant drill.

PRACTICE B

From one of your textbooks select a paragraph which contains adjectives that describe and others that limit or number. Make a list of these adjectives and after each write the noun it modifies.

3. Adverbs modify verbs.

Read the following paragraph and notice that each italicized word modifies the verb by telling "how," or "when," or "where."

WHAT IS INDUSTRY?

¹ Industry requires machinery. ² *Once* great machines did not exist. ³ *Once* common articles were made slowly. ⁴ Hands were the only machines *then*. ⁵ *Now* machinery manufactures everyday commodities *quickly*. ⁶ *Formerly* every mother was a weaver. ⁷ She *carefully* spun her thread. ⁸ She *skillfully* wove cloth. ⁹ She *painstakingly* wove a few yards. ¹⁰ *Now* factories *rapidly* weave huge bolts. ¹¹ *Then*

the village blacksmith *laboriously* made his different products. ¹³ *Now* great factories produce these articles *easily*. ¹⁴ Machinery *usually* does its work *accurately*. ¹⁵ Industry requires many tools. ¹⁶ These tools must be made *carefully*. ¹⁷ Industrial workers must use tools *skillfully*. ¹⁸ Tool production is an industry *also*. ¹⁹ *Recently* high schools have developed remarkable industrial courses. ²⁰ *Fortunately* you may become a skilled worker. ²¹ Have you *already* a chosen industrial field? ²² You should *immediately* consider your high-school industrial courses.

In *Once common articles were made slowly*, *once* tells "when" the articles were made and *slowly* tells "how" they were made. Both words modify *were made*. Any word that modifies a verb is an adverb. Adverbs tell "how," "when," or "where."

You have already analyzed sentences showing subject, verb, complement, and modifying adjectives. To add adverbs to the analysis is not difficult. Simply write the adverb below the verb it modifies.

As a sample exercise analyze the sentences in "What Is Industry?" showing subject, simple predicate, complement, and word modifiers, including adverbs. Use the abbreviation *Adv* for adverbs.

The first six sentences are analyzed here. You will be able to work out the others. Possibly you will wonder why *not* is an adverb in *Once great machines did not exist*. Since *not* makes the verb negative and in this way modifies *did exist*, it is an adverb.

SENTENCE 1: Industry requires machinery.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT

PREDICATE

(D O)

industry (N)

requires (V)

machinery (N)



SENTENCE 2: Once great machines did not exist.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT

machines (N)

great (Adj)

PREDICATE

did exist (V)

not (Adv)

once (Adv)



SENTENCE 3: Once common articles were made slowly.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT

articles (N)

common (Adj)

PREDICATE

were made (V)

slowly (Adv)

once (Adv)



SENTENCE 4: Hands were the only machines then.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT

hands (N)

PREDICATE

were (V)

then (Adv)

(Pred N)

machines (N)

only (Adj)

the (Adj)



SENTENCE 5: Now machinery manufactures everyday commodities quickly.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT

machinery (N)

PREDICATE

(D O)

manufactures (V), quickly (Adv)now (Adv)commodities (N)everyday (Adj)

SENTENCE 6: Formerly every mother was a weaver.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT

mother (N)every (Adj)

PREDICATE

(Pred N)

was (V)formerly (Adv)weaver (N)a (Adj)

How successful were you in analyzing the sentences? If there is any point you do not understand, go back in this book to the place where the grammatical facts are first presented and give yourself a review of that part.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. A word that modifies a verb is an adverb.
2. An adverb tells "how," "when," or "where."

PRACTICE A

Again you are to analyze sentences so that you can master the relationship of words in sentences. On a sheet of paper analyze the sentences in the following article, "Consider Your Capabilities," into subject, predicate, verb, complement, and word modifiers. Show the part of speech of each word, and indicate the kind of complement.

The last three sentences in "Consider Your Capabilities" are imperative sentences. The subject of an imperative sentence is

generally not expressed. In the analysis of sentence 18 notice that the subject is *you* unexpressed.

SENTENCE: Examine thoughtfully all these subjects.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT

(you) (Pro)

PREDICATE

(D O)

examine (V)

subjects (N)

thoughtfully (Adv)

these (Adj)

all (Adj)



CONSIDER YOUR CAPABILITIES

¹ Do you understand thoroughly your prevocational opportunities? ² Surely you have used wood sometime. ³ Did you particularly enjoy it? ⁴ Perhaps the sheet-metal shop interests you. ⁵ Can you expertly repair an automobile? ⁶ Mechanical drafting interests most boys greatly. ⁷ Does electricity mean play? ⁸ It is a technical subject. ⁹ Is printing easy? ¹⁰ Can you correctly produce a printed page? ¹¹ Did you ever shape a beautiful bowl? ¹² Can you cook well? ¹³ Do you particularly like sewing? ¹⁴ Is skillful designing a happy experience? ¹⁵ Vocational courses develop different skills. ¹⁶ Industry demands conscientious workers. ¹⁷ It needs good leaders. ¹⁸ Examine thoughtfully all these subjects. ¹⁹ Study all the various industries. ²⁰ Also consider wisely your own abilities.

*PRACTICE B

In order to learn how to use adjectives and adverbs, write original sentences with the following conditions: (1) these adjectives modify either the subject or the complement: *early, many, first, interesting, good, valuable, pleasant, favorable, great, important*; (2) these adverbs modify the verb: *gradually, fast, deliberately, probably, definitely, well, confidently, actively, practically, finally*.

4. Adverbs may modify adjectives and other adverbs.

You have learned that adverbs modify verbs. Adverbs also modify other words, a fact you will learn when you study the paragraph "What About Agriculture?" on page 59.

First notice the adverb in this sentence: *Does farming mean an unusually hard life?* The subject, verb, and complement are *farming does mean life*. The noun *life* is first modified by the adjective *hard*: *Farming does mean hard life*. What is the use of *unusually*? It modifies the adjective *hard*. Since *unusually* tells "how," it is an adverb. Now you know that adverbs modify adjectives as well as verbs.

Notice the following analysis.

SENTENCE 4 (page 59): Does the farmer seem a very poorly paid worker?

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT

farmer (N)
the (Adj)

PREDICATE

does seem (V)

(Pred N)

worker (N)
paid (Adj)

poorly (Adv)

very (Adv)

a (Adj)



The predicate noun is *worker*. It is modified by the adjectives *a* and *paid*. How is the worker paid? He is a *poorly* paid worker. Since *poorly* tells "how," it is an adverb. And because it modifies the adjective *paid*, it is an adverb. What is the use of *very*? It tells "how" *poorly paid* the farmer seems. He seems a *very poorly paid worker*. Because *very* tells "how," it is an adverb. This example shows that an adverb may modify another adverb as well as a verb or an adjective.

You should have many opportunities to decide the relationship of words in sentences, since this ability is the goal in studying grammar.

As a sample exercise analyze graphically each of the sentences in the paragraph "What About Agriculture?" into subject, predicate, complement, and word modifiers. Be sure to write each word carefully so that you show exactly the relationship of one word to another in the sentence. Indicate the kind of complement and state the part of speech of each word. You now know two more of the eight parts of speech: adjectives and adverbs.

WHAT ABOUT AGRICULTURE?

¹ Has farming ever interested you? ² Does farming mean an unusually hard life? ³ Does farm life seem too terribly lonely? ⁴ Does the farmer seem a very poorly paid worker? ⁵ The modern agriculturist has a remarkably wide training. ⁶ He uses only recently developed machinery. ⁷ He therefore can successfully raise much produce. ⁸ Scientifically he can easily enrich the soil. ⁹ He can also rotate his crops. ¹⁰ The modern farmer makes a very modest living. ¹¹ His farm does not promise fabulously great riches. ¹² The intelligent farmer certainly lives a worth-while life.

Here are the analyses of sentences 1, 2, 3, and 5. The fourth is omitted since it appears on page 58. Check your paper with these.

SENTENCE 1: Has farming ever interested you?

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT

farming (N)

PREDICATE

has interested (V)
ever (Adv)

(D O)

you (Pro)



SENTENCE 2: Does farming mean an unusually hard life?

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE	
	(Pred N)	
<u>farming</u> (N)	<u>does mean</u> (V)	<u>life</u> (N)
		hard (Adj)
		unusually (Adv)
		an (Adj)



SENTENCE 3: Does farm life seem too terribly lonely?

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE	
	(Pred N)	
<u>life</u> (N)	<u>does seem</u> (V)	<u>lonely</u> (Adj)
farm (Adj)		terribly (Adv)
		too (Adv)



[Sentence 4 is analyzed on page 58.]

SENTENCE 5: The modern agriculturist has a remarkably wide training.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE	
	(D O)	
<u>agriculturist</u> (N)	<u>has</u> (V)	<u>training</u> (N)
modern (Adj)		wide (Adj)
the (Adj)		remarkably (Adv)
		a (Adj)



◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. Adverbs tell "how," "when," or "where."
2. Adverbs modify verbs.
3. Adverbs also modify adjectives and other adverbs.

PRACTICE A

How well do you understand the relation of words in sentences? Analyze graphically the sentences in the following article into subject, verb, complement, and word modifiers. Show the part of speech of each word, and indicate the kind of complement. Show the exact relationship of one word to another.

THE FIELD OF AGRICULTURE

Agricultural Training

¹ Many city high schools present some agricultural work. ² Rural high schools usually offer many different agricultural courses. ³ Practically no state agricultural college has a tuition fee. ⁴ There more highly specialized courses are given. ⁵ The seriously interested student should complete a full agricultural course.

Qualifications of the Farmer

¹ The successful farmer needs many different aptitudes. ² Academic aptitude is quite important. ³ The modern farmer reads current technical farm literature. ⁴ He understands simple accounting thoroughly. ⁵ He keeps accurate, orderly records. ⁶ The successful farmer has high mechanical aptitude. ⁷ He handles farm tools effectively. ⁸ He skillfully repairs machinery. ⁹ Present-day farming requires electrical power. ¹⁰ Tractors are particularly useful. ¹¹ The farmer understands practical mechanical principles. ¹² The progressive farmer needs social aptitude. ¹³ The farmer should be a good neighbor. ¹⁴ Community organizations need his hearty co-operation. ¹⁵ Helpful legislation will certainly enlist his interest.

* PRACTICE B

Select from the newspaper two brief paragraphs that contain only a few adjectives and adverbs, or sentences that have no word modifiers at all. Add a modifier to each noun and verb in the sentences. Then add a modifying adverb to a few of the adjectives you insert. Present your original paragraph and addi-

tions to the class and see whether they think your final paper is correct.

5. Adverbial nouns are adverbial modifiers. "What" is sometimes used as an interrogative noun or an interrogative adjective. Review of word modifiers.

You have learned that two kinds of words modify. They are adjectives and adverbs.

Sometimes a noun is used as an adverb. For example, in *He is harvesting today* the word *today* is a noun because it names something. But it also tells "when," and for this reason is called an adverbial noun. Other adverbial nouns are the days of the week, when used like this: *She went Tuesday*. Still other adverbial nouns are *tomorrow, yesterday, month, week, day, year*, whenever they are used to tell "when."

By this time you should have a thorough understanding of word modifiers. Suppose as a sample exercise you use one or more paragraphs from the article "Professional Careers Mean Service" and list on a piece of paper all modifiers and indicate the word each modifies. You may omit *the, a, and an*.

Possibly you will need a word of explanation about the use of such a word as *nature's* in this sentence: *The engineer understands nature's laws thoroughly*. *Nature* is a noun, but it is a possessive noun. Though it modifies a noun by showing possession, it is still a noun. You will find other possessive nouns in this lesson. Indicate their part of speech by this abbreviation: (Pos N).

You will come across *what* occasionally. In these sentences *what* is either an interrogative pronoun or an interrogative adjective, depending upon its use in the sentence. If *what* is used in place of a noun, as in *What do you want?* the word *what* is an interrogative pronoun. If it is used as an adjective, as in *What answer did he give?* it is an interrogative adjective.

PROFESSIONAL CAREERS MEAN SERVICE

The First Group

1 Do you know personally any professional people? 2 What exceptional training did they have? 3 The professional field has three divisions. 4 The first professional group uses things. 5 They are engineers. 6 The engineer understands nature's laws thoroughly.

The Second Group

1 People interest the second professional group. 2 This group includes the physician. 3 His outstanding aim is healing. 4 His schooling demands long years. 5 Hospital work follows the medical school. 6 Today many physicians are successful professional men. 7 People concern the psychiatrist also. 8 His task is mental hygiene. 9 Surely mental health is fundamentally important. 10 The clergyman's work is wholly humanitarian. 11 His aim is spiritual development. 12 People deeply concern the teacher, also.

The Third Group

1 Ideas interest the third professional type. 2 These people are writers. 3 Their ideas often advance human progress. 4 Professional workers generally render service. 5 Does this important field interest you? 6 College courses precede most professions. 7 There are many other professions. 8 Can you name them?

◆ IN THIS UNIT YOU HAVE LEARNED CERTAIN FACTS. HERE THEY ARE RESTATED FOR YOU.

1. *Adjectives are modifiers of nouns and pronouns.*
2. *Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.*
3. *Adverbs tell "how," "where," or "when."*
4. *A few nouns tell when. They are known as adverbial nouns.*

PRACTICE A

Do you understand the relationship of words in sentences? Show that you do by analyzing graphically the sentences in the following article into subject, verb, complement, and word

modifiers. Note the part of speech of each word in your analysis and indicate the kind of complement. Place the words accurately so that you show the exact relationship of one word to another. Use the form given on page 60.

A GREAT AGRICULTURIST

¹ What very famous scientist was born a Negro slave? ² What ambitious boy earned his entire education? ³ What great agriculturist scientifically made 300 different peanut products? ⁴ The answer is George Washington Carver. ⁵ This remarkable self-made man became a great teacher also. ⁶ Tuskegee Institute housed his laboratory. ⁷ Waste agricultural products provided his experimental materials. ⁸ His tireless energy constantly inspired his pupils' admiration. ⁹ His simple faith influenced their lives greatly. ¹⁰ His great gifts were freely given. ¹¹ Probably no man more richly deserves our nation's gratitude today.

***PRACTICE B**

(I)

Below are two lists, one of adjectives and another of adverbs. Use each word in an original sentence. The adjectives must modify nouns or be complements. The adverbs must modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. The correct use of these words is discussed in Unit Eleven.

ADJECTIVES

frequent
good
bad
direct
particular
definite
necessary
possible
thorough

ADVERBS

frequently
well
badly
directly
particularly
definitely
necessarily
possibly
thoroughly

(2)

Write original sentences containing adverbial nouns. Can you use as many as fifteen?

Books About Vocations

If you want to know more about vocations, read these books.

On how to know yourself

Choosing Your Course, by Charles M. Smith and Samuel Baron. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1942

Knowing Yourself and Others, by Donald McLean. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1938

Living Your Life, by Claude C. Crawford, Ethel G. Cooley, C. C. Trillingham. D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1940

Planning Your Future, by G. E. Myers, G. M. Little, and S. A. Robinson. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1940

Solving Personal Problems, by Harrison Sacket Elliott and Grace Loucks Elliott. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1936

What Do You Want to Be? by George H. Waltz, Jr. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1939

On commercial vocations

Business Opportunities for Women, by Catharine Oglesby. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1937

Careers for Women, Edited by Doris Elsa Fleischman. Garden City Publishing Company, Garden City, New York, 1939

Your Career in Business, by Walter Hoving. Duell, Sloan and Pearce, New York, 1940

On industry

Electrical Occupations, by Lee M. Klinefelter. E. P. Dutton & Company, New York, 1937

Man's Work and World, A History of Industry, by Eleanor Perret. D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1935

Men Working: A Story of the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company, by Norman Beasley. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1931

Occupations, by John Mason Brewer. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1936

Occupational Guidance, by Paul Wilber Chapman. Turner E. Smith and Company, Atlanta, Georgia, 1937

On agriculture

A Living from the Land, by William B. Duryee. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1941

Master Farmers of America and Their Education, by Oliver Stuart Hamer, University of Iowa Press, Iowa City, 1930

Opportunities in Farming, by Paul W. Chapman. Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1941

Young Man in Farming, by A. K. Getman and P. W. Chapman. John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1933

Your Career in Agriculture, by Homer P. Andersen. E. P. Dutton & Company, New York, 1940

On professional careers

Beyond the School, by F. A. Rexford, C. M. Smith, S. L. Sellin, and P. F. Frabitto. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1936

Engineering Opportunities, Edited by R. W. Clyne. D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1939

So You're Going to College, by Clarence E. Lovejoy. Simon and Schuster, New York, 1940

White Coats, A Story of Medical School, by Dwight B. Fishwick, M.D. Dodd, Mead and Company, New York, 1940

Working with Words, by Lorine Pruette. Funk and Wagnalls Company, New York, 1940

UNIT FOUR

Phrase Modifiers

You have seen how a single word, when used as a modifier, can clarify and give added or more definite meaning to a statement. Word groups also modify. In this unit you will learn more about sentences by studying groups of words which, taken together, act as modifiers.

1. Prepositions introduce phrase modifiers.

What, would you say, is the use of *before breakfast* in this sentence: *He went before breakfast*? *Before breakfast* tells *when*, but it is not an adverb because *before* by itself does not tell *when*. *When* did he go? The entire word group *before breakfast* is needed to answer this question. Since *before breakfast* tells *when*, it is used as an adverb. Taken together, the words modify the verb *went*. Any group of words without a subject or a predicate and used like a word modifier is a phrase.

The phrase *before breakfast* consists of two parts. First, there is the introductory word *before*. This word is called a *preposition*. Second, there is the word *breakfast*, which is the object of the preposition *before*. Neither of these words *before* and *breakfast* is a modifier by itself. The entire word group must be considered as a single modifier. It is a *phrase modifier*.

Our language has different kinds of phrases. A phrase that is introduced by a preposition is called a prepositional phrase. *Before breakfast* is a prepositional phrase; it is used as an adverb.

Some prepositional phrases are used as adjectives. Notice, for

example, the sentence: *The author of the book is a successful dictitian.* The word group *of the book* is a phrase modifying *author*. Since the phrase modifies a noun, it is used as an adjective. The two parts of this phrase are the preposition *of* and the noun *book*, which is the object of the preposition. The object of a preposition is a noun or a pronoun. The adjective *the* modifies *book*.

Many common words are used as prepositions. Some of them are: *up, down, over, under, beneath, above, before, after, in, into, near, of, with, to, about, beyond, with, during, for, out, from, between, against, beside, like*. To be prepositions, these words must introduce phrases. That is, they must introduce a word group that consists at least of the preposition and its object. A preposition is another of the parts of speech.

To use prepositions correctly, you must first learn to recognize prepositions. As a sample exercise, pick out the prepositional phrases in the article "Selection of Foods."

Write the preposition and then the object with its modifiers. Underline the object of the preposition. Follow this example:

PREPOSITION

of

+

OBJECT OF PREPOSITION

every living creature

SELECTION OF FOODS

¹ Do you enjoy food? ² You should. ³ Eating is a normal function of every living creature. ⁴ Do you enjoy different kinds of foods? ⁵ Your body needs the many elements in all foods. ⁶ Do you naturally select your food wisely? ⁷ Few people put much thought into the selection of their food. ⁸ Man is often very unwise about his eating. ⁹ He sometimes eats without appetite. ¹⁰ Desire alone often governs his choice of food at mealtime. ¹¹ Appetites may be satisfied by many foolish selections. ¹² Frequent lunches on sweets alone will not build a healthy body for any person. ¹³ A dinner of only fat food is scarcely the proper diet. ¹⁴ People must acquire working information about food values.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. A preposition is a connecting word. It shows the relation between the group of words the preposition introduces and another word.
2. A preposition introduces a prepositional phrase.
3. A prepositional phrase is a modifier used as an adjective or an adverb is used.
4. A prepositional phrase consists of two parts: the preposition and the object of the preposition. The object of a preposition is always a noun or a pronoun.

PRACTICE A

In studying prepositions and prepositional phrases, you must first learn to recognize prepositional phrases. Select all the prepositional phrases in the following paragraphs, listing the prepositions in one column and the objects of the prepositions with their modifiers in another column. Underline the object of each preposition.

FOODS NECESSARY FOR THE BODY***Proteins***

¹ The human body is rebuilding itself constantly. ² It needs new materials for this replacement. ³ Repair tissue comes from protein only. ⁴ Lean meat is rich in protein. ⁵ White of egg is another source. ⁶ Protein is abundant in cheese. ⁷ Milk furnishes protein.

Carbohydrates

¹ All carbohydrates give power to the body. ² Sugar is a vital fuel for food. ³ Starch is converted into sugar by the body. ⁴ It is another source of muscular energy. ⁵ Cereals contain starch in great quantities. ⁶ Many root vegetables develop in the ground. ⁷ They contain starch. ⁸ Carbohydrates supply energy quickly. ⁹ For a quick pickup eat something sweet. ¹⁰ In most fruits sugar is present.

Fats

¹The temperature of the body is regulated by bodily fat. ²Fats furnish the fuel for heat. ³Fats also produce energy. ⁴They exceed carbohydrates in energy material. ⁵Fats are found in meats. ⁶Butter is an easily digested fat. ⁷Cream is the fatty substance within milk. ⁸Vegetable oils like olive oil are rich in fats. ⁹Shortening preparations from various vegetable oils provide this essential nutrient.

Mineral Salts

¹Besides these three foods, minerals are needed in the human body. ²Minerals regulate the functions of all body cells. ³Mineral salts build bony structure. ⁴They are assimilated into the blood. ⁵Salts are found in all vegetables. ⁶Fruits are also fairly rich in the different mineral salts.

Water

¹Water is necessary for health. ²It has the importance of the food elements. ³Water dissolves food. ⁴It carries away waste products. ⁵Water is present in the blood. ⁶Through the blood nourishment is carried to all parts of the body.

PRACTICE B

In order to learn to use prepositional phrases, as well as to recognize them, write an original sentence containing each of the prepositions listed on page 68. Remember that every preposition must have an object and that every prepositional phrase must be used as an adjective or an adverb modifier is used. (Possibly your teacher may prefer to have you call these modifiers adjectival and adverbial.)

2. Prepositional phrases are used as adjectives or adverbs. They are therefore known as adjective or adverb phrases.

You have learned what a phrase is, what it consists of, and how it is used. Now you will take one apart and see what makes it work.

Suppose you made this statement: *I ate a dish of ripe strawberries for my breakfast.* What are the parts of the sentence, the subject and the verb? These are: *I ate*. Next take the subject and the rest of the predicate and ask *what*: "I ate what?" The answer is: *I ate dish*. Don't be confused here. Don't say the answer is *I ate strawberries*; for this analysis is grammatically incorrect. You cannot take the object of a preposition in any sentence and make it the direct object of the verb in that sentence. Each phrase is a modifying unit in itself. *Of strawberries*, in other words, is a phrase modifier. This phrase modifies only *dish*. Since it modifies a noun, it is an adjective phrase.

Another phrase modifier in the sentence is *for my breakfast*. Since it tells *when*, it is an adverb phrase. It modifies *ate* because it tells when *I ate a dish of strawberries*.

This is the analysis of the sentence:

SENTENCE: I ate a dish of ripe strawberries for my breakfast.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT

I (Pro)

PREDICATE

(D O)

ate (V)

dish (N)

for (Prep)

a (Adj)

+ breakfast (N)

of (Prep)

my (Pos Pro)

+ strawberries (N)

ripe (Adj)



In analyzing phrases you must be sure to show the exact relationship of one word to another. The plus (+) sign shows that the two words modify as one word. A preposition by itself is never a modifier. The preposition plus its object makes one modifier. You must show that relationship in your analysis.

Sometimes a sentence contains both word and phrase modifiers. These relationships always appear in a graphic analysis. Study the following analysis.

SENTENCE: Our natural choice of food is often right.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT

choice (N)
natural (Adj)
our (Pos Pro)
of (Prep)
+food (N)

PREDICATE

is (V) (Pred Adj)
often (Adv) right (Adj)



As a sample exercise analyze the sentences in the next article. (Watch out for the word *cannot*, in which you will find the verb *can* and the adverb *not*. Show this relationship in your analysis.)

WHAT ARE VITAMINS?

Source of Vitamins

¹ Have you ever heard of scurvy? ² For centuries mariners suffered from this frightful disease. ³ The cure for this malady was discovered in fresh leafy green vegetables. ⁴ Fresh citrous fruit also was a cure. ⁵ This clue pointed to some unknown food substance. ⁶ The investigations of scientists later proved beyond a doubt the existence of *vitamins*.

Importance of Vitamins

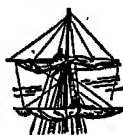
¹ Every person today knows a few important facts about vitamins. ² Vitamins are essential to life. ³ They are necessary for growth. ⁴ Every vitamin performs a number of important duties. ⁵ The human body cannot create vitamins. ⁶ It must get vitamins from outside sources. ⁷ Most vitamins cannot be stored for a long time within the body. ⁸ They are being used continually. ⁹ Certainly every wise person will plan his diet carefully. ¹⁰ He will study the need for vitamins most seriously.

Here are the analyses of sentences 2 and 6 under "Source of Vitamins." These analyses may clarify any problems you had in working the assignment.

SENTENCE 2: For centuries mariners suffered from this frightful disease.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
<u>mariners</u> (N)	<u>suffered</u> (V)
	for (Prep) + centuries (N)
	from (Prep) + disease (N)
	frightful (Adj)
	this (Adj)



SENTENCE 6: The investigations of scientists later proved beyond a doubt the existence of vitamins.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
<u>investigations</u> (N)	<u>proved</u> (V)
the (Adj)	later (Adv)
of (Prep)	beyond (Prep)
+scientists (N)	+doubt (N)
	a (Adj)
	(D O)
	<u>existence</u> (N)
	the (Adj)
	of (Prep)
	+vitamins (N)



◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS ABOUT PHRASES:

1. *Phrase modifiers consist of a preposition and the object of the preposition.*
2. *Phrase modifiers are either adjective or adverb phrases.*
3. *A prepositional phrase has two parts: the introductory preposition and the object of the preposition.*

PRACTICE A

You should now be ready to analyze each sentence in the following article. In making your analyses be sure to show the exact relationship of one word to another. Indicate the part of speech of every word and the kind of complement.

VITAMINS MEAN HEALTH

Valuable Facts About Vitamins || ¹ Vitamins are chemical substances. ² They are essential to life. ³ Chemists recognize a growing number of vitamins. ⁴ Experiments in laboratories have proved some facts about vitamins. ⁵ Experiments with actual diet have revealed other facts. ⁶ Vitamins are built directly into the body structure. ⁷ The stock of usable vitamins must be replenished constantly. ⁸ The vitamins in our food are comparable to automobile spare parts.

The Vitamin B Family || ¹ Scientists have divided the original B vitamin into six different known vitamins. ² Each vitamin is a different chemical substance. ³ Today, the original B vitamin is called B complex. ⁴ Fortunately, all forms of B complex occur together in natural food products. ⁵ Vitamin B is the best-known member of the B vitamin complex. ⁶ Its chemical name is *thiamin*. ⁷ It might be called the "pep" vitamin. ⁸ The presence of this vitamin overcomes fatigue. ⁹ Normal growth depends upon it. ¹⁰ It is found in all seed foods. ¹¹ A concentrated source is wheat germ. ¹² This germ of the wheat is often taken out in milling. ¹³ Many millers use slogans about vitamin B. ¹⁴ "Always look for the 100 per cent whole grain label!" ¹⁵ "Buy bread with added vitamin B."

PRACTICE B

From the "food" page of any daily newspaper select a paragraph which contains several prepositional phrases. Make a list of the phrases and after each indicate the word it modifies.

3. Sentences may contain the object of a preposition that is not expressed but is taken for granted. Such an object is known grammatically as an indirect object.

What is the use of *me* in *The editor of the paper sent me an amusing article about beauty*? A brief glance at the sentence shows that the subject, verb, and complement are *editor sent article*. The words *an* and *amusing* are modifiers of *article*. The group of words *about beauty* is a prepositional phrase modifying *article*. *Me* tells to whom *the editor sent an article*; it is, then, an adverb modifier. *Me* is, in fact, the object of the preposition *to*, which is not expressed but is taken for granted. Study the analysis of the sentence.

SENTENCE: The editor of the paper sent me an amusing article about beauty.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE (DO)	
<u>editor</u> (N)	<u>sent</u> (V)	<u>article</u> (N)
the (Adj)	[to] (Prep)	amusing (Adj)
of (Prep)	+me (Pro)	an (Adj)
+paper (N)		about (Prep)
the (Adj)		+beauty (N)



The word *me* in this sentence is called an indirect object. That is, the direct object *article* is sent to the indirect object *me*.

Indirect objects do not often appear in sentences, for only certain verbs can take indirect objects. The most common of these verbs are: *ask, tell, give, send, take, teach, write, lend, throw, cook*.

As a sample exercise, analyze the sentences in the following paragraph. Be sure that you do not confuse the direct object

with the indirect object. In this paragraph you will find *every-one*, *anyone*, and *one* used occasionally in place of nouns. Used in this way, these words are pronouns. They are called indefinite pronouns. When *any* and *every* modify nouns, they are adjectives.

GOOD HEALTH MAKES YOU ATTRACTIVE

¹ Every young person wants good health. ² The beauty of bright eyes is desired by everyone. ³ Any girl appreciates the loveliness of a clear skin. ⁴ Every boy wants a clear complexion. ⁵ Everyone admires glossy hair. ⁶ Sound white teeth always give a person real attractiveness. ⁷ Do you squint? ⁸ Tired eyes do not give anyone a fresh, vivacious appearance. ⁹ Do you have correct posture? ¹⁰ In any health contest the posture of the contestants is an important point. ¹¹ Do you tire easily? ¹² Are you irritable? ¹³ Good health gives one vibrant energy. ¹⁴ An adequate supply of the right vitamins will help give you good health. ¹⁵ Good health begins with your diet. ¹⁶ Healthy people are attractive. ¹⁷ Study the effects of the different vitamins. ¹⁸ Perhaps you can give yourself health by correct eating.

How many sentences have indirect objects? The answer is five. Here is the analysis of one of the sentences, sentence 6. It should clear up any questions you may have.

SENTENCE: Sound white teeth always give a person real attractiveness.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE (D O)
<u>teeth</u> (N) white (Adj) sound (Adj)	<u>give</u> (V) <u>attractiveness</u> (N) always (Adv) real (Adj) [to] (Prep) + person (N) a (Adj)



You should now have enough knowledge of phrases and skill in finding them to be able to analyze sentences fairly easily.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. *Modifying phrases are either adjective or adverb phrases.*
2. An indirect object is an adverb modifier. It is the object of a preposition that is not expressed but is taken for granted.

PRACTICE A

Analyze the following sentences completely. Indicate the part of speech of each word and the kind of complement.

OTHER HEALTH VITAMINS

A for Eyes

¹ Vision depends upon certain chemical changes. ² Vitamin A is concerned with these changes. ³ Good vision is impossible without it. ⁴ Bright eyes depend upon it. ⁵ A generous amount of vitamin A can also give you a healthy skin. ⁶ Nearly all yellow fruits possess vitamin A in large quantities. ⁷ Carrots supply it generously. ⁸ Parsley has a large amount. ⁹ Liver is the best animal source.

C for Strength

¹ *Ascorbic acid* is another name for vitamin C. ² This necessary element has several uses in the body. ³ Strength of bone requires it. ⁴ A deficiency of C in early childhood gives one poor teeth for life. ⁵ It strengthens the body cells. ⁶ The walls of all blood vessels depend upon it. ⁷ It helps the body's fight against all bacteria. ⁸ All types of infection indicate a deficiency of vitamin C.

D for Youth

¹ Youth requires vitamin D in abundance. ² You cannot have good posture without it. ³ Deficiency of this vitamin also gives one poor teeth for life. ⁴ The skin creates vitamin D. ⁵ It is then absorbed into the blood stream. ⁶ Sunlight produces vitamin D by its action upon certain chemicals.

PRACTICE B

To get more practice in the use of indirect objects, write one original sentence containing an indirect object with each verb listed on page 75. Discuss your sentences with your friends and make use of their helpful suggestions. Your teacher can always be the final court of appeal.

4. Review of phrase modifiers.

The object of a preposition may be modified by another phrase. Notice, for example, the following analysis.

SENTENCE: For breakfast every member of the class of '48 ate a huge stack of buckwheat pancakes.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
<u>member</u> (N)	(D O)
every	<u>ate</u> (V)
of (Prep)	for (Prep)
+ class (N)	+ breakfast (N)
the (Adj)	stack (N)
of (Prep)	huge (Adj)
+ '48 (N)	a (Adj)
	of (Prep)
	+ pancakes (N)
	buckwheat (Adj)



This analysis shows that the sentence contains three phrases. *Of the class* modifies *member*, the subject. *Of '48* modifies *class*, which is the object of the preceding phrase. *Stack*, the direct object, is modified by *of pancakes*. Often sentences are formed like this one with phrase following phrase, one phrase modifying the object of a preceding phrase. To understand the relationship of words in sentences, you need to be able to identify phrases and the word each modifies.

◆ THESE ARE THE BASIC FACTS ABOUT SENTENCES WHICH YOU HAVE LEARNED UP TO THIS POINT:

1. *A sentence completely expresses a thought.*
2. *A sentence has two parts: a subject and a predicate.*
3. *The subject is a noun or a pronoun. The predicate is a verb.*
4. *Verbs may have complements. A verb of action is completed by a direct object. The direct object may be a noun or a pronoun.*
5. *A verb that indicates state of being or condition may be completed by a predicate noun or pronoun or a predicate adjective.*
6. *Adjectives and adverbs are word modifiers.*
7. *Modifying phrases are used as adjectives or adverbs.*
8. *An indirect object is an adverb phrase modifier with the preposition not expressed but taken for granted.*

The mastery of the knowledge and use of these facts gives you a sense of self-reliance in analyzing the relationship of words in sentences.

PRACTICE A

To prove that you fully understand the exact relationship of words, analyze graphically the sentences in the following paragraphs. Indicate the part of speech of each word and the kind of complement.

IMPORTANT MINERALS

Calcium

¹ The body of the average North American contains almost four pounds of calcium. ² Calcium is a mineral. ³ With phosphorus it forms calcium phosphate. ⁴ This term is the chemical name for lime. ⁵ The bones of the body are largely composed of calcium phosphate. ⁶ Calcium is not used solely in the frame of the body. ⁷ Muscles become strong through use of this mineral. ⁸ Sometimes lack of calcium is one cause of nervousness.

An Important Trio

¹ The body uses calcium only with two other elements. ² Vitamin D is necessary for the use of calcium. ³ Phosphorus is the

third member of this important trio. ⁴Phosphorus aids the body in the absorption of fats. ⁵This mineral transforms sugar into energy for action. ⁶Eggs are a good source of calcium. ⁷They are also a source of phosphorus. ⁸Milk is rich in these two minerals.

Other Important Minerals

¹Do you know about other minerals of importance in the diet? ²The red corpuscles of the blood require iron. ³Copper is necessary for the use of iron by the body. ⁴Iodine regulates the action of the thyroid gland. ⁵This important gland controls the growth of the body.

*PRACTICE B

To be sure that you know how to use the grammatical facts you have learned in this unit, use the following in original sentences: (1) three adverbial nouns, (2) three indirect objects, (3) three adverbs that modify adjectives, (4) two possessive pronouns, (5) a predicate noun, a predicate pronoun, a predicate adjective, (6) a verb with no complement, (7) a direct object, (8) two adverbs that modify adverbs.

Books About Nutrition and Vitamins

If nutrition and vitamins interest you, you will find these books worth reading.

America's Nutrition Primer, by Eleanora Seuse. M. Barrows and Company, New York, 1942

Eat, Drink and Be Healthy, by Clarence W. Lieb. The John Day Company, New York, 1928

Good Nutrition for Everybody, by L. Jean Bogert. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1942

The Nutrition Handbook, by Demetria Taylor. Doubleday, Doran & Company, Garden City, New York, 1942

Vitality Through Planned Nutrition, by Adelle Davis. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1942

Vitamins (What They Are and How They Can Benefit You), by Henry Borsook. The Viking Press, New York, 1940

Vitamins and Minerals for Everyone, by Alida Frances Pattee. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1942

The following books are more difficult, but contain valuable scientific information about foods.

Chemistry of Food and Nutrition, by H. C. Sherman. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941

Fundamentals of Health, by Thomas Bruce Kirkpatrick, A. F. Huetner, and C. M. Taylor. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1941

The Newer Knowledge of Nutrition, by Elmer Verner McCollum and Nina Simmonds. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1939

UNIT FIVE

Punctuation Within Sentences

The sole purpose of punctuation is to make the thought of the writer clear to the reader. Punctuation marks help to tell the reader exactly what the writer has in mind. You have already learned how the ends of sentences should be punctuated. In this unit you learn how certain elements that appear within sentences can be properly punctuated.

1. An appositive is a group of words placed next to a noun to identify or tell more about the thing named by the noun.

A sentence often contains a group of words that explains another word in the sentence. For example, in *Have you ever visited Mexico, our good neighbor to the south?* the phrase *our good neighbor to the south* explains what *Mexico* is. This kind of explanatory group of words is an appositive. The word *appositive* means one word or one word with its modifiers placed next to another word. You can make it clear that an appositive is an explanatory group simply by setting it off from the rest of the sentence with a comma.

An appositive is not an essential part of the subject or the predicate. An appositive is not a modifier. It is a group of words added to the sentence to explain another word. Because an appositive is not grammatically necessary to the sentence, it is set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Whenever an appositive comes within a sentence, not at the end of a sentence, two commas set it off. Notice that two commas are used in *Mexico, our closest Latin-American neighbor,*

is a land of startling contrasts. One comma precedes the appositive, and another comma follows it.

The sentences in "Mexico, Our Good Neighbor" contain many appositives. You would not, in ordinary writing, use so many appositives. As a sample exercise, decide what the appositives are and account for the use of each comma.

MEXICO, OUR* GOOD NEIGHBOR

¹ Would you like to visit Mexico, our closest Latin-American neighbor? ² It is an unusual land, a land of startling contrasts. ³ Mexico has the climate of every zone, the tropical on its coastal plains of steaming jungles and the arctic on its great snow-covered mountain peaks and the temperate on its fertile mesas [may'sas].* ⁴ The soil of Mexico varies from that of the deserts, great stretches of dry sand with cactus growth, to that of its well-watered tablelands, lush pastures, and fertile fields. ⁵ Everywhere you see flowers, rampant growth with gorgeous coloring. ⁶ Mexico is a place of color, a land of dancing sunshine. ⁷ Every good neighbor in the United States is interested in the progress of Mexico, a progressive member of the American family of nations.

An appositive, you have learned, is not an essential part of a sentence. This fact can be shown readily in the graphic analysis of a sentence that contains an appositive.

SENTENCE: It is a fabulously rich land, a veritable treasure house.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE		
		(Pred N)	(Appos)
it (Pro)	is (V)	land (N)	house (N)
		rich (Adj)	treasure (Adj)
		fabulously (Adv)	veritable (Adj)
		a (Adj)	a (Adj)



* The pronunciation of foreign words that may not be familiar to you is given in brackets in this and the next unit.

You see that *land* is explained by *house*. *House* is *land*. This fact is shown by an equals sign. When one noun explains another noun, the second word is said to be *in apposition* to the first word. For example, *house* is in apposition to *land*. But, because *house* has modifiers, *a* and *veritable* and *treasure*, the entire group of words is called an *appositive*. In many well-expressed sentences you may wish to use appositives. Learn to punctuate them correctly, so that they will be properly interpreted.

Do not confuse the words *appositive* and *apposition* with *opposite* and *opposition*. They are spelled differently and have different meanings. Master the meaning and the spelling of these four words and be able to use them in original sentences.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. An appositive is a group of words placed next to a noun to identify or tell more about the thing named by the noun.
2. An appositive is not an essential part of the subject or predicate.
3. An appositive is set off from the rest of the sentence by means of commas. Two commas are needed when the appositive comes within the sentence; one comma is needed when the appositive comes at the end of the sentence.

PRACTICE A

Many of the sentences in the article "Natural Wealth of Mexico" contain appositives. They have not been properly punctuated, and the meaning of the sentences is, on the first reading, not clear. On a sheet of paper list each appositive with the preceding word that it explains or identifies. Indicate the necessary punctuation. This example from the first sentence of "Natural Wealth of Mexico" will make the assignment clear:

Mexico, essentially a mining country,

NATURAL WEALTH OF MEXICO

Precious Metals

¹ Mexico essentially a mining country has great natural resources. ² The early conquerors Cortes and his followers saw riches everywhere. ³ Their greed always a powerful emotion urged them on to conquest. ⁴ They fought desperately for possession of the Aztecs' land this rich new Mexico. ⁵ Great quantities of silver fortunes beyond an emperor's dreams were sent back by them to Spain. ⁶ Modern Mexico the world's storehouse of mined treasures still exports enormous quantities of metals. ⁷ She sends us silver a metal in great demand. ⁸ Today one of her oldest silver mines a mine far older than the Spanish Empire still produces several tons daily.

Iron and Coal

¹ Iron is another valuable mineral product of Mexico. ² The ore is used in the steel mills of Monterrey. ³ This city the most important manufacturing center of northern Mexico has been greatly influenced by its nearness to the United States its close neighbor to the north. ⁴ Coal the black diamond of industry is also present in the Mexican mountains.

Jewels From the Sea

¹ The finest pearls in the world have come from La Paz [lah pahs'] a little city on the peninsula of Lower California. ² This narrow peninsula an 800-mile finger of land is bordered on both sides by warm waters. ³ Pearl fishing has been carried on there for centuries by Indian *buzos* [boo'sohs] deep-sea divers. ⁴ One pearl gives the diver a fortune.

It is good practice for you to analyze graphically the sentences in this paragraph. You should be able to do the work well. Consult the analysis of the appositive in "Mexico, Our Good Neighbor," on page 83.

*PRACTICE B

An appositive may consist of more than one word, but it stands in apposition to a single noun or pronoun. An appositive

is always set off from the rest of the sentence by commas. A noun alone may also be used in apposition to another noun or a pronoun. When so used, the noun frequently is not set off, because it is very closely related to the other noun or pronoun. For example in *my brother John*, *John* is a noun in apposition with brother. Commas are not needed here. Other close appositives are found in *we boys*, *my cousin Mildred*. With this information in mind write the following: (1) five sentences with appositives within the sentences, (2) five sentences with appositives at the end of the sentences, (3) five sentences with nouns in apposition not demanding commas.

2. Proper nouns and proper adjectives, with certain exceptions, are capitalized.

If you stop to think for a moment, you will see how important it is that certain words be capitalized in the sentences you write. If you were to take a plane ride from Chicago to Grand Rapids and were afterwards writing a friend of your aerial view of the Michigan city, you would hardly write: "I had a marvelous view of grand rapids." If you did, your friend would be likely to misunderstand you.

Correct form in writing requires the capitalization of certain words. You must know when to capitalize and when to use small letters. When, for instance, do you write *City* and when do you write *city*? Here are two examples that will answer this question.

1. You will like Mexico *City*.
2. During your stay in this *city* you will make the acquaintance of many interesting people.

In the first sentence *City* is a part of the name of a particular place. It is a part of a proper noun. Proper nouns are always capitalized. In the second sentence *city* is not a part of a proper noun; it is a common noun. A common noun is not capitalized.

Another pair of examples is:

1. Tourists in foreign *cities* usually visit many *museums*.
2. The *National Museum* in *Mexico City* is worthy of a visit.

In the first sentence *museum* is a common noun. In the second sentence *Museum* is a proper noun because it is a part of the name of a particular place. A proper noun is always capitalized.

Proper adjectives, which are formed from proper nouns, are usually capitalized. For example, in *The Mexican people are partly Spanish*, *Mexican* is a proper adjective modifying *people*. *Spanish* is a proper noun, used as a predicate noun to tell what the people are. In the following article, "Mexico City, the Capital," you will find proper nouns capitalized and common nouns not capitalized. As a sample exercise, give the reason for the capitalization of proper nouns and match each with a common noun in the article. Point out all the proper adjectives.

MEXICO CITY, THE CAPITAL

¹ A visit to the capital will afford you many surprises. ² Mexico City lies in the Federal District. ³ The city is located in a wide valley, the Valley of Mexico. ⁴ Mexico City has many luxurious hotels. ⁵ Its comfortable inns offer accommodations of moderate price. ⁶ You may possibly stay at the San Angel Inn, a popular lodging place. ⁷ A ride down Avenue Juarez [hwah'rays] takes you to a fascinating cathedral. ⁸ During your stay in Mexico you will certainly visit many cathedrals. ⁹ In the capital you must visit the Cathedral, Mexico City's most imposing church. ¹⁰ Possibly a visit to a famous pawn shop will be an interesting experience. ¹¹ You really should visit the National Pawn Shop. ¹² For centuries it has been operated for charity. ¹³ The National Museum in Mexico City is worthy of a visit. ¹⁴ Do you enjoy picture galleries? ¹⁵ In the San Carlos Picture Gallery is a very valuable collection of old paintings.

You should now be able to recognize proper and common nouns and adjectives and capitalize them correctly.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. A proper noun is the name of a particular person, place, or thing.
2. A proper adjective is derived from a proper noun.
3. Proper nouns and adjectives are capitalized.

PRACTICE A

Are you able to recognize proper nouns and proper adjectives? The way you do the first part of the assignment will answer this question.

The following article contains uncapitalized proper nouns and adjectives. It also contains unpunctuated appositives.

(1) On a sheet of paper write correctly all proper nouns and adjectives.

(2) Indicate correct punctuation by writing the appositives and the words that precede and follow. Insert the necessary punctuation. You need not write the pronunciations when doing this exercise.

A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW

The Plaza

¹The zócalo [soh'kah loh] the plaza in the center of Mexico City is a good starting place for trips to various parts of the city. ²On one side of this park stands the cathedral one of the largest Roman Catholic churches in North America. ³This church the oldest edifice of the Christian faith on the continent was completed three hundred years ago.

The National Palace

¹For a bird's-eye view of the city climb one of the cathedral's towers. ²Immediately below you lies the huge national palace. ³This building was formerly a palace the home of the Mexican rulers. ⁴Now it houses the office of the president of the Mexican Republic. ⁵One end contains the national museum. ⁶A visit to this mu-

seum will show you an enormous painting by diego rivera [dee ay'go ree vay'rah] a great contemporary mexican artist.

⁷ broad boulevards extend outward from mexico city to neighboring villages. ⁸ The boulevard paseo de la reforma [pah say'oh deh la ray for'mah] "Reform Drive" ends in beautiful chapultepec [chah pool'tay pek'] park with its famous old castle. ⁹ Gray stone buildings on narrow avenues are closely packed. ¹⁰ Shops line the busy avenue cinco de mayo. ¹¹ The national palace of fine arts a huge white marble building proudly lifts its dome. ¹² This magnificent building houses the national theater of mexico. ¹³ In the distance the ancient university of mexico the first university on the north american continent is now closely surrounded by dwellings.

If you need more practice in recognizing the relationship of words in sentences, analyze graphically the sentences in the preceding paragraphs. Make sure that you show the exact relationship of one word to another. This study demands careful work.

*PRACTICE B

Some words not mentioned so far in this lesson are proper nouns and should generally be capitalized. They are explained on this page and the next two pages. Study each explanation and then write two sentences to illustrate each rule.

(1)

Names of races, peoples, nations, and languages are proper nouns. **EXAMPLE:** The people of Mexico are descendants of the early *Indians*, inhabitants of *America*, and of the *Spanish*, who came from *Spain*.

(2)

Names of the days of the week, months of the year, and holidays are proper nouns. **EXAMPLE:** On *Friday*, *January 1*, *New Year's Day*, we started our trip. Capitalize the word *day* only when it is a part of the name of a particular day.

(3)

The name of a relationship is a proper noun when combined with the name of the person. EXAMPLE: I have several uncles, but I know *Uncle Ben* best. In this sentence *uncles* is a common noun and *Uncle Ben* is a proper noun. In like fashion the nouns *mother* and *father* are proper nouns when they are used as names. EXAMPLE: I hope *Mother* will go with me. In this sentence *Mother* is used as the name of a specific person and is capitalized the same as if the sentence were, I hope *Mary* will go with me. When *mother* denotes merely relationship, it is a common noun and is not capitalized. EXAMPLE: My *mother* has a new car. This rule applies to all family relationships.

(4)

The title of a particular person is capitalized when the title is a part of his name. EXAMPLES: *Dr. Jones*, *Captain Smith*, *Mayor Nelson*, *Judge Holmes*, *Senator Gold*. These titles are not capitalized when they are used without the name, as, "The *doctor* will come at once." The title of the *President*, when it means the President of the United States in office at the time, is always capitalized whether or not his name is given. EXAMPLE: The *President* will speak over a national hookup. The title of king is capitalized without a name when it means the present ruler. EXAMPLE: The King reviewed the troops.

(5)

Titles of books are proper nouns in which the first word and all important words are capitalized. EXAMPLES: *The Gaucho's Daughter*, and *Beyond the Mexique Bay*. Notice that *the* is capitalized in the first example because it is the first word in the title, and *the* in the second title is not capitalized because it is a small and relatively unimportant word. Titles of poems, magazines, and newspapers are proper nouns and should be capital-

ized in the same way that you capitalize titles of books. When you use the title of a book, magazine, or newspaper in your written work, you should underline it. This method is used because in manuscripts an underline shows the printer that the expression is to be italicized. In print, titles of books, magazines, and papers are italicized. Use quotation marks before and after the title of a poem, a short story, or an article. A good rule to follow is this: underline the titles of books, magazines, and newspapers; use quotation marks before and after the title of an article or story found in a specific book or magazine.

(6)

Capitalize *east*, *west*, *north*, *south*, *northwestern*, and similar words when they are used to indicate sections of the country or of the world. EXAMPLES: The *West* has always had that problem. He lives in the *Far East*. A *Western* movie thrills many a young person. Each of these terms means a section: the first and the third, a section of the United States; the second, a section of the world. Do not capitalize these words when they refer to directions. EXAMPLES: They turned *south*. A cold *north* wind was blowing. You capitalize *Southerner* and *Westerner* when you use these words as the names of groups of people.

(7)

The names of the deity, *God*, or the *Lord*, are always capitalized. When you mention mythological deities, you do not capitalize the word *god*. EXAMPLES: Blessed are the people who have the *Lord* for their *God*. Thor was a Norse *god*.

3. The terms of a series are separated by commas.

As a sample exercise, read the following article and try to make a rule for the commas that do not set off appositives.

LET'S GO TO MARKET

¹ Mexico is a colorful land. ² The most colorful spot in any Mexican community is its market. ³ Every visitor to Mexico City should spend a few hours in San Juan Market, an enormous building in the heart of the city. ⁴ What a riot of color one sees! ⁵ A thousand different articles are for sale, silver-braided sombreros [som bray'roh's], gaudy serapes [seh rah'pays], brilliantly colored birds, variegated pottery, and a hundred kinds of food. ⁶ Babies are everywhere, on the sidewalks, on the streets, or on their mothers' backs. ⁷ Unconcerned and fearless and even playful, these little ones spend hours unannoyed by all the activity about them. ⁸ Do you want a live pig, a squawking chicken, and a ring-tailed pet? ⁹ You can buy any of these articles outside here. ¹⁰ Watch the pretty Mexican salesgirls. ¹¹ Notice the good-natured, friendly bargaining about prices. ¹² At the end of the day you will enjoy your memories.

In the sentence, *Do you want a live pig, a squawking chicken, and a ring-tailed pet?* a live pig, a squawking chicken, and a ring-tailed pet is a series. Notice that a comma is used to separate each two terms in the series. The purpose of any comma is separation. In the series in this sentence the first comma separates the first two terms, and the second comma separates the second and third terms. Complete punctuation demands a comma between each two terms. A comma therefore precedes the word *and* which connects the last two terms. Notice that no comma follows the last term in the series.

You may say that you have seen many series in books with no comma before the word *and*. Generally, careful writers use a comma before *and* or any other connecting word. For simplicity and clarity, follow the rule given here; separate every two terms in a series by a comma.

Notice this sentence: *Unconcerned and fearless and even playful, these little ones spend hours unannoyed by all the activity about them.* The word *and* is used to connect each two terms.

Such a word is called a *conjunction*. It is another part of speech. In a series where all terms are connected by conjunctions no commas are needed.

All terms in a series must be used in parallel construction, that is, in the same grammatical way. For example, read this sentence: *The market extends from the street, along the sidewalks, and into the center of the building.* Each term in the series is a prepositional phrase modifying *extends*. Parallel word groups are separated by commas when conjunctions do not connect each two terms.

How are the adjectives used in this word group: *pretty Mexican salesgirls*? *Pretty* describes *Mexican salesgirls*. The two adjectives, *pretty* and *Mexican*, cannot be used interchangeably. This word group is not a series, and the two words must not be separated by commas. It is different with the underscored adjectives in this sentence: *Notice the good-natured, friendly bargaining.* The adjectives in *good-natured, friendly bargaining* may be used interchangeably. You can say *good-natured, friendly bargaining*, or you can say *friendly, good-natured bargaining*. They can be used in any order and therefore should be separated by commas unless they are joined by a conjunction, such as *and*. Sometimes a sentence may contain a series and an appositive all in one group of words. In that case, the commas will be used for different purposes. For example, study this sentence: *Of all my most prized possessions from Mexico, the serapes, the native glass, and the beautiful silverware, I saved only a tiny silver spoon.* The commas after *Mexico* and *silverware* set off an appositive which is a series. The commas in the sentence are accounted for in this way: *Mexico*, (before an appositive); *serapes*, (between the terms of a series); *glass*, (between the terms of a series); *silverware*, (after an appositive).

You should now be ready to work on the punctuation of series of words in parallel construction. A series may be used as subject, predicate, complement, object of preposition, or modifier.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS ABOUT THE PUNCTUATION OF A SERIES:

1. A comma separates every two terms of a series.
2. A comma does not follow the last term in a series.
3. Commas are not used when a connective word joins all the terms of a series.
4. All terms in a series are used in parallel construction.

PRACTICE A

The sentences in the following article have no punctuation in them. Read the first paragraph carefully; then take a sheet of paper and write on it each word after which there should be some punctuation, and add that punctuation. Account for the use of every comma you insert by writing in parentheses either *between the terms of a series* or *before* or *after an appositive*. Then do the same with the second paragraph. Disregard the pronunciations in doing this work.

STRANGE SIGHTS EVERYWHERE

Unfamiliar Foods

¹ One part of the market will interest you. ² There you will see strange foods unfamiliar fruits and odd drinks. ³ Meal of ground maize is sold in the city markets. ⁴ In the country the Mexican woman still grinds corn for tortillas [tawr tee'yahs] the national dish of Mexico. ⁵ Tortillas are flat thin tasteless pancakes of cornmeal. ⁶ At a little stall a tortilla will be cooked for you over a charcoal fire. ⁷ You may put some meat cheese onion and pepper on it roll it up and eat it. ⁸ Bright red peppers small yellow ones and long green varieties are piled high for sale.

Mexican Fruit

¹ Light green zapotes [sah-poh'tays] reddish mamey [mah'may] fruit bright orange mangoes invite your purchase. ² You will enjoy the sweet dark and soft zapotes. ³ Beware of the oval unripe mango! ⁴ It is hard puckery and unpleasant. ⁵ The ripe mango

has a soft juicy delicious pulp. ⁶ You can buy papaya [pah pah'yah] for your breakfast in place of melon berries or grapefruit.

Gay Clothing

¹ The next section of the market has clothing. ² Red yellow orange green blue pink and many other colors are here. ³ These gay colors are preferred by the farmers and laborers. ⁴ Many workers wear white cotton costumes. ⁵ Colorful displays of scrapes woven blankets attract one's attention. ⁶ Often vivid orange green or blue designs predominate. ⁷ Sometimes the weaver has carefully woven a picture of his favorite animal a bull an eagle a horse or a deer into his handiwork. ⁸ The national emblem the Mexican eagle with a serpent in its mouth gaily decorates one pile of finely woven blankets.

*PRACTICE B

To prove to yourself that you can use the information given in this lesson, write the following: (1) three sentences with a series of subjects; (2) three sentences with a series of phrases; (3) three sentences with a series of predicate nouns or predicate adjectives; (4) three sentences with a series of adjectives; (5) three sentences in which the adjectives follow one another but are not in a series.

4. An introductory phrase is often set off by a comma.

Sometimes a sentence is introduced by a long phrase. For example, the underscored words in this sentence form an introductory phrase: *In Mexico City on a Thursday afternoon from the middle of October until the first of March, you may decide to join a large part of the population at the famous bull ring.*

Notice that a comma follows the introductory phrase. The reason for the comma is that it separates the long expression from the rest of the sentence and makes the thought clear for the reader. As a contrast notice the following sentence with its brief introductory phrase: *At about four o'clock the perform-*

ance begins. No comma is needed here to separate the introductory phrase from the rest of the sentence. The phrase is brief; it can be read at one glance. Only when an introductory phrase is long does the reader need a comma to indicate the separation of the phrase from the rest of the sentence.

The sentences in "A Famous Old Mexican Sport" contain introductory phrases as well as appositives and series. As a sample exercise, read the paragraph and account for each comma.

A FAMOUS OLD MEXICAN SPORT

¹ In Mexico City on a Thursday afternoon from the middle of October until the first of March, you may decide to join a large part of the population of the city at the famous bull ring. ² There you will see a bullfight, once the national entertainment of Mexico. ³ Like so many other things in Mexican life, the Spanish language, Spanish architecture, Spanish dress, and Spanish dances, bullfighting was brought to Mexico by the Spanish conquerors. ⁴ On the way to the bull ring, a huge unroofed amphitheater, you will be interested in the crowd. ⁵ The streets are jammed with cars, taxis, and a crowd of men, women, and children. ⁶ Inside the amphitheater flags, large advertising signs, vividly colored programs, and the bright clothing of the spectators give the place a colorful appearance. ⁷ Food vendors call out their wares, soft drinks, oranges, and stalks of sugar cane. ⁸ At about four o'clock the performance begins. ⁹ Bullfighting is breathtaking, exciting, savage, thrilling. ¹⁰ One contestant, the bull, cannot possibly win. ¹¹ Someday the bullfighter will doubtless suffer from serious wounds. ¹² In bullfighting a man matches his wits with the wits of an animal. ¹³ Young Mexicans today do not seem to be greatly interested in bullfights. ¹⁴ Like young people in our United States, most of them prefer active participation in competitive games.

How do you account for the following numbered commas taken from sentence 3, in "A Famous Old Mexican Sport": *Like so many other things in Mexican life,*¹ *the Spanish language,*² *Spanish architecture,*³ *Spanish dress,*⁴ *and Spanish*

dances,⁴ bullfighting was brought to Mexico by the Spanish conquerors?

Not all these commas separate the terms of a series. What is the use of comma 1? Do you see that it sets off the beginning of an appositive? The itemized *things* are: *language, architecture, dress, dances*. Comma 5 sets off the end of the appositive. The other commas, 2, 3, 4, are used to separate the terms of the series.

Sentence 5 has an unusual combination of two series: *The streets are jammed with cars, taxis, and a crowd of men, women, and children*. This sentence has two series. The second series, *men, women, and children*, is the object of the preposition *of*, and the entire phrase modifies *crowd*. *Crowd* is one word in the first series, which is the object of the preposition *with*. Each comma is used to separate two terms in a series.

How are the commas used in sentence 7: *Food vendors call out their wares,¹ soft drinks,² oranges,³ and stalks of sugar cane*? Comma 1 sets off the beginning of an appositive. Commas 2 and 3 separate the terms of a series. Where, you may ask, is the comma to set off the end of the appositive? There is none, since the appositive comes at the end of the sentence.

Notice that a comma is used to set off the fairly long introductory phrase in this sentence: *Like young people in our United States, most of them prefer active participation in competitive games*.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS ABOUT PUNCTUATION WITHIN SENTENCES:

1. An appositive is set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma or commas.
2. Every two terms of a series are separated by a comma unless all the terms are joined by connective words.
3. A long introductory phrase is set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

PRACTICE A

The sentences in the following paragraphs need commas. Write each word that should be followed by a comma, insert the comma, and state the reason for its use.

ANOTHER EXCITING GAME

Pelota

¹ Another popular Mexican sport is lightninglike *pelota* sometimes called *jai alai* [hai' ah lai']. ² The professional players of this popular game are unsurpassed for their skill adroitness agility and endurance. ³ Like American professionals in golf tennis swimming or prize fighting *pelota* players go all over the world for exhibitions.

The Pelota Court

¹ In a large hall called a *fronton* this game is played. ² The team consists of four players two in each set. ³ In one form of *jai alai* a *cesta* [thays'tah] or basket is attached to the right hand of each player. ⁴ This three-foot-long inward-curving racquet is made of fine tough woven basketwork. ⁵ The four-ounce rubber ball with leather cover is thrown with incredible speed against the walls of the court. ⁶ One of the opponents in the game must stop catch and throw the ball back against the wall again. ⁷ A catch in the *cesta* a hit on the wall a bounce on the floor — the game goes on with lightning speed. ⁸ A miss scores for the opposing team.

The Fronton

¹ The Fronton Mexico one of the finest *jai alai* halls in the Americas is a new concrete building with a seating capacity of nearly 4,000 persons. ² The building contains the big fronton arena three small courts for teaching a big swimming pool and a restaurant. ³ An evening at the *pelota* exhibition is an exciting experience. ⁴ It reminds one of a championship tennis match in the United States.

*PRACTICE B

Write a set of fifteen sentences, which you may be asked to dictate to the members of your class for them to write correctly with proper capitalization and punctuation. Utilize the information given about capitalization on pages 86-91. Have the sentences contain appositives, series, and introductory phrases. Discuss your sentences with your classmates and teacher.

If you need more practice in recognizing the relationship of words in sentences, analyze graphically the sentences in the preceding paragraphs. Make sure that you show the exact relationship of one word to another. This study demands careful work.

5. Parenthetical expressions are usually set off from the rest of the sentence by commas rather than by parentheses.

Read the article, "Houses in Mexico," and notice especially the use of the italicized words and their punctuation.

HOUSES IN MEXICO

Homes of the Well-to-Do

¹ Like well-to-do people in any large city in the United States, wealthy Mexicans usually live in handsome, large houses.

² Often their luxurious homes are surrounded by lawns with graceful shade trees, dense shrubs, and brilliant flowers. ³ Such places with landscaped grounds are not, *however*, typical of Mexico. ⁴ They are not seen as frequently as in the United States.

Typical Mexican Streets

¹ In Mexico every city, town, and village has its streets of one-story houses. ² These houses have, *strange to say*, a common front wall. ³ A typical Mexican street, *therefore*, presents a strange appearance to a visitor from the United States. ⁴ On both sides of the street one solid wall extends the entire length of a block. ⁵ These walls, *moreover*, rise directly from the sidewalk.

Typical Mexican Houses

¹ The Mexican houses are, *however*, often very colorful.

² Many houses are pink. ³ Some, *on the other hand*, are brown, red, or blue. ⁴ The most pleasing houses in Mexico, *however*, are white with red tile roofs. ⁵ The exteriors of these middle-class Mexican homes do not seem particularly attractive to us from the United States. ⁶ *Nevertheless*, they are very charming inside.

The Patio

¹ The center of the house is a patio, a roofless garden.

² In it you may find a bubbling fountain, colorful pottery, flowering plants, and even a brilliantly colored tropical talking bird. ³ The family, *of course*, spends much time in the beautiful patio. ⁴ Around the patio are the rooms of the house. ⁵ The home of the peon [pee'on], the unskilled Mexican worker, is a simple dwelling. ⁶ Generally it has only one room with only one opening, a small low door.

In this article you have found some uses of the comma that have not yet been explained. This sentence has such a use: *Such places with landscaped grounds are not, however, typical of Mexico.* Commas set off *however* from the rest of the sentence. Like an appositive, *however* in this sentence is not a modifier; it is simply a word added to the sentence as a kind of side remark or comment. Since it interrupts the flow of the sentence it is set off by commas. Such words and word groups are called *parenthetical expressions*. That is, you might use parentheses to set off such expressions. Notice, for example, *These houses have (strange to say) a common front wall.* In the past, parentheses were used rather commonly. Now we use parentheses to set off parenthetical expressions only when (1) the use of commas might be confusing, or (2) the thought of the parenthetical expression is quite unrelated to the rest of the sentence. The following sentence requires parentheses for easy reading: *Argentina (of which you will read in the next unit of this book) is another of our great Latin-American neighbors.* Page refer-

ences are placed in parentheses because they are unrelated to the main thought of the sentence.

Today commas rather than parentheses are usually used to separate parenthetical expressions from the rest of the sentence.

Some commonly used parenthetical expressions are *moreover, indeed, therefore, for example, on the other hand, nevertheless, of course*. Most of these appear in "Houses in Mexico."

Parenthetical expressions are different from appositives in that such expressions may be moved around in a sentence, whereas appositives must stay just about where they appear. For example, you may say: *However, the house was very beautiful*, or *The house was, however, very beautiful*, or *The house was very beautiful, however*. *However* is a parenthetical word. It is usually better to place a parenthetical expression within a sentence rather than at the beginning. However, there are times when the parenthetical word is more effective at the beginning of the sentence.

◆ IN YOUR WRITING REMEMBER THESE RULES ABOUT PUNCTUATION:

1. *Separate each two groups of words in a series by a comma, unless a connective word joins them.*
2. *Separate a long introductory phrase from the rest of a sentence by a comma.*
3. *Separate any parenthetical word or group of words from the rest of the sentence by commas.*

PRACTICE A

Indicate the correct punctuation of the following article by listing on a separate sheet of paper the words that must be followed by commas. State the reason for each comma. Disregard the pronunciations in making your list.

LITTLE FARMS AND BIG HACIENDAS

The Peon

¹ Mexico is essentially an agricultural country a land of small farms large ranches and great haciendas. ² Moreover a majority of the Mexican people live on the products of the soil. ³ Strange to say many thousand farmers make their homes in villages towns and cities. ⁴ They walk daily to their farms. ⁵ These farms are usually close to populated places. ⁶ Indeed every Mexican city is surrounded by fields. ⁷ The activity of the village plaza the services in the church the companionship of the village shopkeepers — all these joys of community life are dear to the company-loving Mexican's heart. ⁸ Some peons Mexican laborers own their own small farms. ⁹ There are on the other hand many fine estates large ranches and huge haciendas larger than any in our country. ¹⁰ Landless peons on the ranches and haciendas are often completely separated from the outside world. ¹¹ There they have everything their fathers and grandfathers needed before them a chapel with its ever-burning candles a small school-house for their children's education a general store for their necessary shopping. ¹² On the vast estate of an absent landowner the peons may work all their lives with little profit to themselves. ¹³ Therefore the Mexican government strives for a more equal distribution of the land.

The Crops

¹ Of course the crops vary with the section of the country. ² On the great central plateau plantations of thousands of acres of maguey [mag'way] a plant used in making alcoholic beverages stretch for miles. ³ On other great farms however corn wheat and beans are raised. ⁴ On the mountain slopes herds of cattle sheep and goats are the pride of prosperous ranchers. ⁵ The semitropical areas are very productive. ⁶ Therefore great fields of oranges lemons bananas and pineapples are cultivated. ⁷ Other tropical products sugar cane coffee tobacco and cotton are also a source of income to the owners of the land. ⁸ Nevertheless the raising of each crop demands long hours of toil in the dirt and sun.

PRACTICE B

(1)

Certain parenthetical words are used as exclamations. The most common are: *oh, ah, aha, alas, well*. These words are a separate part of speech. They are called *interjections* because they interject (inject or throw in) feeling. If the interjection is thrown into a sentence, a comma usually follows it. If, however, the feeling is very strong, an exclamation point may be used.

In a novel or magazine you have recently read, or are now reading, find ten interjections and list them on a sheet of paper. Notice how they are punctuated. Discuss them with your classmates.

(2)

Yes and *no* are parenthetical words and should be followed by a comma when they appear in a sentence like this: *Yes, I enjoyed my trip.*

Illustrate the punctuation of *yes* and *no* in four original sentences.

(3)

The name of anyone or anything addressed directly in a statement is a parenthetical expression. It should be set off by a comma or commas from the rest of the sentence. Look at the word *John* in this sentence:

I am alarmed at your extravagance, *John*.

Likewise, consider the name *Spirit of Night* in the first line of Shelley's "Ode":

Swiftly walk over the western wave, *Spirit of Night*.

You can see that the writers used these parenthetical expressions to call the attention of those to whom they addressed

themselves. Such parenthetical expressions are known as nouns of address.*

Write seven original sentences containing nouns of address.

6. Review of punctuation within sentences.

Read the following letter, paying special attention to all punctuation and capitalization.

A LETTER FROM MEXICO

Hotel Francia
Oaxaca City, Oaxaca
September 6, 1946

Dear Lois,

¹ Yes, we've finally left Mexico City. ² Of course, we couldn't spend all our time in that delightful city. ³ Therefore, we moved on to Oaxaca. ⁴ You should, to be sure, know its pronunciation. ⁵ It is *wah hah'kah*. ⁶ That's not difficult.

⁷ Our trip here was slow but fascinating! ⁸ At every stop of the train the natives offered the most colorful articles for sale. ⁹ Rebozos [ray boh'sohs], Mexican handmade shawls, cone-shaped hats, and decorated basketwork interested me most.

¹⁰ A sleek, new automobile, an antiquated train on a narrow-gauge railway, and a recklessly driven taxi brought us from Mexico City to our American-plan hotel here. ¹¹ Look on your map of Mexico.

¹² Oaxaca is south of Mexico City. ¹³ It should be very hot here.

¹⁴ Its location, however, is 5,067 feet above sea level. ¹⁵ This elevation gives us cool, refreshing air. ¹⁶ The city is situated on a good-sized stream, the Jalatlaco [hah laht lah'koh] River. ¹⁷ It empties into the Pacific Ocean.

¹⁸ This town has everything, streetcars, electric lights, telephones, and outdoor cafes. ¹⁹ The center of life in Oaxaca is its charmingly picturesque plaza. ²⁰ I go there every day, sit under its shady black-green laurel trees, enjoy the gossip of the native men, women, and children, and listen to the city's well-trained band. ²¹ The costumes

* The pronunciation of this word is ad-dress'. Accent the second syllable.

of these people are different from the dress of the people in Mexico City. ²² The garments are more varied, more colorful, more interesting in every way. ²³ Several different tribes of Indians live in this part of the country. ²⁴ That fact accounts for the different native costumes. ²⁵ Furthermore, these people have not yet been greatly influenced by tourists.

²⁶ Massive, low, fortresslike houses line the streets of this quaint Mexican city. ²⁷ Severe earthquakes are frequent here. ²⁸ Last night I had my first experience with one. ²⁹ It wasn't so bad. ³⁰ The houses are well built with unusually strong walls. ³¹ They are, therefore, earthquake resistant.

³² Oaxaca City has charming houses. ³³ Rose and blue are the common colors. ³⁴ Heavy doors, the most picturesque portals in Mexico, high grated windows, and the color of the houses give every thoroughfare an attractive appearance. ³⁵ It's fun to stroll along the streets in the evenings.

³⁶ Last Friday afternoon Oaxaca became a veritable beehive. ³⁷ By every means of travel, on mules, in oxcarts, on horseback, in busses, and on foot, the natives from east, north, south, and west came into the city. ³⁸ They seemed like an invading horde. ³⁹ They weren't, however, warlike. ⁴⁰ The reason for this influx was market day on Saturday. ⁴¹ Everyone had brought something for sale. ⁴² Such a colorful crowd I had never seen at the market in Mexico City, at the bullfight, or in the square at Guadalupe [wa dah loop'eh]. ⁴³ I bought a blue-and-white wool serape, the most serviceable souvenir possible. ⁴⁴ In fact, I bought two. ⁴⁵ I shall give the second to a certain girl. ⁴⁶ Who can she be? ⁴⁷ Guess!

⁴⁸ We are flying to Yucatan [yoo cah tahn'] late tomorrow. ⁴⁹ I'll write from there.

Love,

JoAnne

This letter contains examples of all the types of punctuation which have been treated in this book. It also contains a few other types of punctuation, the uses of which you have not yet studied, but which you may have noticed in your reading of letters or other writing.

Commas are used to separate the name of a town from a state, and the day of a month from the year. In the heading of the letter the commas indicate omissions. In *Oaxaca City, Oaxaca* the meaning is: the city of Oaxaca *in the state of* Oaxaca. In *September 6, 1946* the idea is September 6 *of the year* 1946.

In formal writing names of the months are not abbreviated. In a letter home you might write *Sept.* for September. An abbreviation is generally followed by a period. Always follow each of the abbreviations *Dr.*, *Mrs.*, and *Mr.* with a period. *Miss* is not an abbreviation and should not be followed by a period.

A comma usually follows the salutation of a friendly letter. A colon (:) is used in a business letter.

A comma may be used after the complimentary close of a letter, or you may omit punctuation in this place if you wish.

The apostrophe is used to indicate the contraction of words. For example, in *we've left Mexico City*, *we've* is a contraction of *we have*. *Couldn't* is a contraction of *could not*; *that's* is a contraction of *that is*. The most important contraction is *it's*. This form means *it is*. An apostrophe must be used to indicate that a contraction of *it is* is meant. The possessive pronoun *its* has no apostrophe, as in this sentence: *You should know its pronunciation.*

Know your audience before using contractions in your writing, for they give it a very friendly, familiar flavor. It is wise to avoid using contractions in such writing as formal school reports or business letters.

The hyphen is used to syllabify words. For example, the word *writing*, above, could not be printed on one line. To show that the word is divided with part on one line and the rest on another line, the printer used a hyphen. Notice that the hyphen appears after the first part. Never begin a line with a hyphen.

Plan your lines so that you will have as few divided words as possible. Always divide words by syllables. Do not guess. Study your dictionary to learn the only correct syllabication.

Hyphens are also used to convert two words into a one-word adjective. For instance, in the sentence you have just read, the idea of a "form of one word" is more effectively conveyed to the reader in the words "one-word form." In writing it as *one-word* we show that emphasis falls upon *one*. If we had not combined and hyphenated these two words, our readers might on first glance have thought we were referring to a certain "word form."

In the letter the two words *cone* and *shaped* are used as one word to modify *hats*, *cone-shaped hats*. Other examples are: *black-green laurel* and *well-trained band*. Be careful in your use of the hyphen. The only adverb that is used in this way is *well*. Even *well* is not used this way if it modifies a predicate adjective. We would write, *The city's band is well trained*. Do not connect words that can stand alone as modifiers. Other words that are frequently joined with words to make one modifier are *ill*, *far*, and *near*.

"Combined" words, like *handmade* and *basketwork*, have been used together so often and for such a long time that they are usually written as a single word, without hyphens.

As a sample exercise write on a sheet of paper all the examples you can find in "A Letter from Mexico" of each of the following usages: (1) comma to separate the name of a town from the name of a state or the day of the month from the year, (2) comma in salutation and close, (3) apostrophe in contraction, (4) hyphen to syllabify words, (5) hyphen to form one-word adjectives from two or more words, (6) "combined words."

◆ REMEMBER:

1. The comma is used to separate the name of a town from the name of a state, or the day of a month from the year. The comma is used after the salutation of a friendly letter and may be used after the close of a letter.
2. The salutation of a business letter is followed by a colon.
3. An abbreviation is followed by a period.

4. The hyphen is used to syllabify a word and also to form a one-word adjective from two words.
5. Certain "combined" words, such as "handmade" and "basket-work," are written as one word.
6. *Parenthetical words and groups of words are set off from the rest of the sentence by commas. These expressions include appositives, interjections, and nouns of address.*
7. *The terms of a series, always in parallel construction, are set off from one another by commas.*
8. *A long introductory phrase is set off from the sentence by a comma.*
9. *Proper nouns and proper adjectives are capitalized.*

PRACTICE A

You should now have considerable mastery in punctuation so that your reader easily understands the meaning you want to convey. Prove to yourself and your teacher that you possess this mastery of punctuation.

On a sheet of paper copy the sentences in the following article correctly. Capitalize properly and insert the necessary punctuation. Number each comma you insert and every word you capitalize, and, below the paragraph, state the reason for each mark of punctuation and each capital letter. Disregard pronunciations in your writing. Follow this sample:

The soil of ¹ Mexico, ² however, ³ varies from that of the deserts, ⁴ great stretches of dry sands with cactus growth, ⁵ to that of the well-watered tablelands, ⁶ lush pastures, ⁷ and fertile fields.

(1) Proper noun; (2) before a parenthetical expression; (3) after a parenthetical expression; (4) before an appositive; (5) after an appositive; (6) between the terms of a series; (7) between the terms of a series.

EDUCATION FOR ALL

The Need for Schools

¹ Mexico a modern nation in many respects has a great problem in the education of its people. ² The majority of the mexican people cannot read write or speak spanish correctly. ³ Under josé vasconcelos [hoh say' vahs kohn say'lohs] the enthusiastic intelligent and tireless minister of education in president obregón's [oh'bray gohn'] regime mexican educators of vision and ideals started work on the problem of universal education. ⁴ Indeed the need was schools for the grown-ups in addition to schools for children.

Rural Schools

¹ A group of inspired teachers ardent eager and enthusiastic missionaries went through the country. ² A knowledge of spanish an understanding of arithmetic and a desire for real service were the qualifications required of the local rural teacher. ³ Many such teachers were found. ⁴ With the help of the villagers rough benches for seats and tables for desks were soon built. ⁵ Some books a black-board pencils and paper came for the simple one-room schoolhouses from the ministry of education. ⁶ School began. ⁷ Soon people in many villages men women and children learned songs and stories of mexico and the facts of soapmaking personal hygiene and the care of their animals. ⁸ The teacher helped the pupils in better basket-weaving finer hatmaking and more colorful pottery-design. ⁹ Moreover the meaning of their government and the significance of their flag were also covered in daily lessons. ¹⁰ The basketball court and the shower baths in the school yards were a constant source of pleasure. ¹¹ The earnest young teachers spent one month each year in special training schools. ¹² There they attended classes in agriculture arts-industries music medicine and social work.

Schools in the Cities

¹ Higher schools for pupils of both sexes are found in all the larger cities. ² The university of mexico the oldest university on the north american continent is now co-educational. ³ The national

preparatory school for the university also admits girls. ⁴ However schools on the high-school level are usually not co-educational. ⁵ Universal education the foundation of any republic advances in all parts of Mexico. ⁶ The government officials and teachers have vision high ideals and enthusiasm. ⁷ Mexico is a worthy member of the great family of American nations.

PRACTICE B

(1) Write an original letter to a friend or a relative about something of real interest to you: a trip, an athletic contest, a party you attended, home events. If you write about something of interest to you, your letter will be of more interest to the reader.

(2) Have a classmate read your letter to decide whether you have punctuated it correctly.

(3) Write ten sentences in which you use the contraction *it's* and ten sentences in which you use the possessive pronoun *its*. Master the correct spelling of these words now.

Books About Mexico

These books will give you further information about our nearest neighbor to the south.

The Magical Jumping Beans, by Eleanor Hubbard Wilson. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1939

Mexico, by Carlos Castillo. The Burton Holmes Travel Service, New York, 1934

Mexico and Central America, by Harry A. Franck. F. A. Owen Publishing Company, Dansville, New York, 1940

Mexican Frieze, by Addison Burbank. Coward-McCann, Inc., New York, 1940

Mexico in Story and Pictures. Story by Marguerite Henry; pictures by Kurt Wiese. Albert Whitman & Company, Chicago, 1941

The Pan American Highway, by Harry A. Franck and Herbert C. Lanks. D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1940

UNIT SIX

Compound Elements and Compound Sentences

Sentences sometimes present two or more closely related ideas. These may be joined together as one part of the sentence, just as, for instance, a team of two (or three) horses may be hitched to the same wagon. They are called compound elements of a sentence. Do you think that you could recognize a team when it occurs as a compound subject, a compound predicate, or a compound modifier?

On the other hand, there are times when two or more groups of words, each of which could be a sentence in itself, are joined together into one sentence. They form what is called a compound sentence. In order to have a clear understanding of the relationship of words in a sentence, you must learn about compound elements and compound sentences. The purpose of this unit is to give you that information.

1. Sentences sometimes contain compound elements: compound subjects, compound predicates, compound objects of verbs, compound predicate nouns or adjectives, and compound modifiers.

In the last unit you read this statement about Mexico: *On other great farms, corn, wheat, and beans are raised.* The words form a sentence, for they completely express a thought. Yet the verb *are raised* has three subjects: *corn, wheat, and beans*. All three subjects have to do with the same idea. They are "compounded," so to speak; they form a *compound subject*.

You might change the statement to read: *On other great farms, corn, wheat, and beans are planted and raised*. These words, too, form a sentence because they completely express a thought; but the subjects *corn, wheat, and beans* now rule two verbs which have to do with the same idea. These verbs form a *compound predicate*.

You might change the statement to: *On other great farms they raise corn, wheat, and beans*. These words complete the action verb *raise*. They form the *compound direct object*. You would have a *compound predicate noun* in this sentence: *On other farms the products are corn, wheat, and beans*. These predicate nouns form a compound complement because they complete a verb of being.

You might expand the statement even further: *On other great farms, corn, wheat, and beans of superior quality and of excellent taste are planted and raised*. You have thus added *compound modifiers*.

Sentences, then, may have any number of closely related compound elements: compound subjects, compound predicates, compound objects, compound predicate nouns or adjectives, and compound modifiers.

Now, as a sample exercise, read the following article and find all the compound elements, that is, all elements consisting of two or more words used in the same grammatical way.

ARGENTINA, A GREAT AMERICAN NATION

Its Great Resources

¹ In the family of twenty-two American nations, Argentina has an important place. ² Argentina is a great land. ³ Someday it may become a fabulously rich country and an equally power-

ful one. ⁴ Its magnificent resources are its almost endless grazing land, its fertile soil, and its dense forests of valuable wood. ⁵ On the pampas, the natural plains of Argentina, are great herds of animals. ⁶ They are Argentina's "gold-in-motion." ⁷ Cattle, horses, sheep, and pigs roam over this vast, open land. ⁸ Argentina's flatness has saved her the expenditure of man's efforts and the great cost of road-making. ⁹ With comparatively little effort on the part of man, the rich, black, fertile soil yields an enormous crop of wheat yearly. ¹⁰ It is the world's greatest producer of linseed and, in normal times, the world's chief exporter of beef and hides and wheat and corn. ¹¹ In her northern warmer states, Argentina also raises cotton, sugar, and tobacco and has a great variety of highly valuable forests.

*Two Mutually Beneficial
Nations*

¹ With the intelligent and constant effort of her leaders and workers, Argentina can become a great power in the American family of nations. ² The United States needs Argentina. ³ Argentina needs the United States. ⁴ These nations should be mutually beneficial in their economic policy. ⁵ Each nation should buy freely and in reasonable amounts from the other nation. ⁶ Each country should understand the people, the customs, and the needs of the other country. ⁷ In this way national friendships are formed and developed and maintained through the years.

The first compound element which you find in the article is a predicate noun in the third sentence under "Its Great Resources."

Notice the relationship of the words as shown in the analysis which is given at the top of the following page.

SENTENCE: Someday it may become a fabulously rich country and an equally powerful one.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
	(Pred N)
<u>it</u> (Pro)	<u>may become</u> (V) <u>country</u> (N)
	someday (Adv) <u>rich</u> (Adj)
	fabulously (Adv)
	a (Adj)
	and (Conj)
	(Pred N)
	<u>one</u> (Pro)
	powerful (Adj)
	equally (Adv)
	an (Adj)



Each of the two complements has its own modifiers. Notice that the word *and* connects a predicate noun and a predicate pronoun. *And* is a conjunction, another part of speech.

Sentence 7 of "Its Great Resources" has a compound subject. Study the analysis.

SENTENCE: Cattle, horses, sheep, and pigs roam over this vast, open land.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
<u>cattle</u> (N) — <u>horses</u> (N) — <u>sheep</u> (N)	<u>roam</u> (V)
and (Conj) — <u>pigs</u> (N)	over (Prep)
	+land (N)
	open (Adj)
	vast (Adj)
	this (Adj)



Sentence II of the same part of the article has two predicates.

SENTENCE: In her northern warmer states, Argentina also raises cotton, sugar, and tobacco and has a great variety of highly valuable forests.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
	(D O) (D O)
<u>Argentina</u> (N)	<u>raises</u> (V) — <u>cotton</u> (N) — <u>sugar</u> — (N) —
	(D O)
	and (Conj) — <u>tobacco</u> (N)
	also (Adv)
	in (Prep) — states (N)
	warmer (Adj)
	northern (Adj)
	her (Pos Pro)
	and (Conj)
	(D O)
	<u>has</u> (V) <u>variety</u> (N)
	great (Adj)
	a (Adj)
	of (Prep) — forests (N)
	valuable (Adj)
	highly (Adv)



Notice that each verb has its own direct object. The direct object of the verb *raises* has three elements: *cotton*, *sugar*, *tobacco*. The direct object of the verb *has* is *variety*. The phrase *in her northern warmer states* modifies both the verbs, *raises* and *has*, but it is placed under the verb nearer to it in the sentence.

In the second part of the article, "Two Mutually Beneficial

Nations," sentence 5 has compound adverbial modifiers. The relationship of these two modifiers, one of which is an adverb and the other a prepositional phrase, is clearly shown in the analysis.

SENTENCE: Each nation should buy freely and in reasonable amounts from the other nation.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
<u>nation</u> (N)	<u>should buy</u> (V)
each (Adj)	freely (Adv)
	and (Conj)
	from (Prep) + nation (N)
	other (Adj)
	the (Adj)
	in (Prep) + amounts (N)
	reasonable (Adj)



The preceding analyses show you how compound elements in a sentence are used. For the sake of practice, analyze the sentences not explained here. Discuss your work with your classmates. To understand sentences thoroughly, you must know the exact relationship of one word to another.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. In a sentence a compound element consists of two or more words or groups of words used in the same grammatical way.
2. The words or groups of words in a compound element may be connected by a conjunction.
3. A conjunction is a part of speech which joins elements of a sentence.

PRACTICE A

(1)

Analyze the sentences in the following articles, "The New York of South America" and "The Beautiful Capital." You should, of course, use any method your teacher prefers. You may use the graphic method which has been used in this book. This method is the shortest written form which we could devise. Or you may follow the other diagramming method suggested in the Key.

(2)

You should already know the reason for the use of each comma in the two articles in this Practice. Make a list of the words followed by commas and after each indicate the reason for the comma.

THE NEW YORK OF SOUTH AMERICA

¹ Buenos Aires [bway'nohs ai'rays], the largest city of Argentina, is in many respects like New York City, the metropolis of North America. ² Both cities are splendid, gay, and modern. ³ Great railroad lines and huge systems of rivers and canals bring the produce of vast, rich, productive areas to both ports. ⁴ Fast passenger ships and slower cargo vessels load and unload at the miles of docks available in the two harbors. ⁵ Nearly all the railway lines of Argentina radiate from Buenos Aires. ⁶ The best of them have passenger service unexcelled in any country. ⁷ There are excellent air-conditioned streamliners and fast freight trains. ⁸ The tracks are wide and the cars are heavy and comfortable. ⁹ The transportation system of the city is efficient and adequate. ¹⁰ There are streetcars, subways, and many bus lines. ¹¹ Many tall skyscrapers of modern design and construction and many beautiful new factories house the business of this South American city. ¹² In industrial development, however, Buenos Aires cannot yet compare with New York or with Philadelphia, Chicago, or Detroit.

A few of these sentences begin with *there*, which is not an adverb. For example, notice sentence 10: *There are streetcars, subways, and many bus lines.* The word *there* introduces the sentence and is called an *expletive*. *Expletive* comes from two words which simply mean *to fill up*. An expletive is merely an introductory word; it is never the subject of the sentence. It does not really add anything to the meaning of the sentence. Sometimes *it* is used in the same way, as in this sentence: *It is a cold day.* Here *it* is an expletive and not a pronoun.

In sentence 12 *however* is a parenthetical expression and does not modify any word in the sentence. In analyzing the sentence graphically, place the word *however* above the sentence in parentheses to show that it is not a modifier. An illustration of the graphic analysis of a parenthetical expression is on page 122.

THE BEAUTIFUL CAPITAL

¹ Buenos Aires is, in some respects, like New York. ² In other ways it is like Washington, D.C. ³ Buenos Aires is a beautiful capital. ⁴ Like Washington, the South American city has been thoughtfully and carefully planned and adorned with many fine public buildings and spacious, well-planned parks. ⁵ At the end of the Avenida [ah-ven ee'dah] de Mayo, the capitol building with its golden dome looms high. ⁶ Indeed, the similarity of its setting to the location of our own national capitol at the head of Pennsylvania Avenue is striking. ⁷ The residence of the President of the Republic of Argentina is a large and elaborate "Pink House." ⁸ Magnificent tree-bordered avenues, glistening public buildings, elaborate marble statues in charming little parks and plazas delight the proud resident and the eager traveler. ⁹ The wealth of Argentina has poured into Buenos Aires. ¹⁰ It is, indeed, the leading cultural center of the southern part of South America. ¹¹ The National Opera House attracts the great musicians and actors of every country. ¹² The University of Buenos Aires, with its rich background and traditions, sets the cultural standards of the people. ¹³ Education is compulsory and free. ¹⁴ Argentina excels in the production of beautiful textbooks for

elementary school children. ¹⁵ The political, social, literary, and intellectual life of Argentina centers in this great cosmopolitan capital.

PRACTICE B

To make certain that you understand the work in this lesson, write at least three illustrations of each of the following elements used in a compound construction: subject; predicate; direct object; predicate noun, pronoun, or adjective; adjective modifier; adverbial modifier; object of preposition. You may combine any you care to and in this way lessen the number of sentences you write.

2. A sentence may consist of two or more closely related groups of words each of which completely expresses a thought and could stand alone as a separate sentence.

A sentence, as you know, is a group of words that completely expresses a thought. Furthermore, a sentence always has a subject and a predicate.

Is every group of words with a subject and a predicate a sentence? By no means! For instance, a group of words such as *which the gauchos* [gow'chohz] *drink* has a subject, *gauchos*, and a predicate, *drink*; it is not a sentence, however, for it does not completely express a thought. The words *which the gauchos drink* depend upon something else, as they do in this statement: *I like the tea which the gauchos drink.*

Any group of words that contains a subject and a predicate is called a clause. A clause may *depend* upon something else to express a thought completely, in which case it is called a *dependent clause*. A clause may completely express a thought in itself, in which case it is called an *independent clause*. Such a group of words is known as a simple sentence. Any independent clause may be lifted out of a sentence and written by itself as a simple sentence. Two or more independent clauses which are

closely related in thought may be written together, in which case the sentence is called a *compound sentence*. A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses, written together as one sentence.

In the last unit, the statement on page 102 which preceded that relating to the now well-known "corn, wheat, and beans," read more or less as follows: *On the great central plateau, plantations of thousands of acres of maguay stretch for miles.*

This statement is very closely related in thought to that of the "corn, wheat, and beans." Why not combine the two closely related ideas in one sentence? It can easily be done: *On the great central plateau plantations of thousands of acres of maguay stretch for miles; and on other great farms, corn, wheat, and beans are raised.*

You have now "compounded" two closely related ideas in one sentence and have what is known as a *compound sentence*.

You know now that sentences may have any number of closely related compound elements: compound subjects; compound predicates; compound predicate nouns, pronouns, or adjectives; and compound modifiers. Sentences may even consist of two or more closely related groups of words that in themselves completely express thoughts.

As a sample exercise, try to find the compound sentences in the following article.

BRAZIL, OUR BIG NEIGHBOR

She Gives Us Food

¹ Another nation of great importance in the American family is Brazil. ² Brazil is a big country, for her boundaries extend far north and south of the equator. ³ Throughout this great land flows the mighty Amazon River, and on both sides of this river lies a tropical empire, vast and savage and largely unexplored. ⁴ Brazil is in our homes every hour, and still we do not recognize her presence. ⁵ What products of Brazil have you seen today? ⁶ At breakfast

your mother doubtless had a cup of coffee, and possibly you had a cup of cocoa. ¹ Both beverages may have come from Brazil. ² Brazil raises a very large part of the world's coffee and has even been called the "coffee pot of the world." ³ Brazil holds second place in the world's production of chocolate, a very popular beverage and flavoring.

She Gives Us Many Necessities ¹ Without a doubt you have seen rubber in all shapes and forms. ² Brazil was the first home of natural rubber. ³ Perhaps the old tires on your father's car came from the banks of the Amazon. ⁴ Your home, of course, has electric lights. ⁵ Brazil may be in your home, for Brazil alone exports carnauba wax, often used for electric insulation. ⁶ Even your phonograph records may have this wax, and consequently Brazil may be in every home with a phonograph record. ⁷ The United States sorely needs many exports from Brazil, manganese, chromium, mica, nickel, and tungsten. ⁸ Yes, Brazil is an exceedingly rich country, and her agronomists, capable agricultural scientists, are developing new kinds of products. ⁹ The United States and Brazil must be good friends, and they must be mutually beneficial.

Did you find eight compound sentences? You should have. To decide whether a sentence is a compound sentence, you must study each word group in the sentence and see whether it has a subject and a predicate. If it does, it is a clause. Next you must decide whether the word group expresses a thought completely. If it does, it is an independent clause. If the sentence has two or more independent clauses, it is a compound sentence.

Some of the compound sentences have compound elements. A thorough understanding of the relationship of words makes clear just what any word in a sentence does. Study the analysis of sentence 3 under "She Gives Us Food."

SENTENCE: Throughout this great land flows the mighty Amazon River, and on both sides of this river lies a tropical empire, vast and savage and largely unexplored.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
<u>Amazon River</u> (N)	<u>flows</u> (V)
mighty (Adj)	throughout (Prep) + land (N)
the (Adj)	great (Adj)
	this (Adj)
and (Conj)	
<u>empire</u> (N)	<u>lies</u> (V)
unexplored (Adj)	on (Prep) + sides (N)
largely (Adv)	both (Adj)
and (Conj)	of (Prep) + river (N)
savage (Adj)	this (Adj)
and (Conj)	
vast (Adj)	
tropical (Adj)	
a (Adj)	



This graphic analysis shows clearly the relationship of the words in the sentence. Two independent clauses are connected by the conjunction *and*. The sentence also contains a compound element, the adjectives *vast* and *savage* and *unexplored*.

The fact that a parenthetical group of words has no grammatical relationship to the rest of the sentence is shown in the analysis of sentence 4 of "She Gives Us Many Necessities."

SENTENCE: Your home, of course, has electric lights.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
<u>home</u> (N)	(D O)
your (Pos Pro)	<u>has</u> (V) <u>lights</u> (N) (of course)
	electric (Adj)



Of course is not part of the subject or the predicate, nor is it a modifier. This fact is shown by its separation from the sentence. Since it is a parenthetical expression added to the sentence, it is placed in parentheses in the diagram.

As a sample exercise, analyze the sentences in "Brazil, Our Big Neighbor." Show exactly the relationship of one word to another. Account for the use of each comma in the article.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. A group of words that contains a subject and a predicate but is used as only part of a sentence is called a clause.
2. A clause that completely expresses a thought is an independent clause.
3. A compound sentence is a combination of two or more independent clauses.
4. Independent clauses may be connected by a conjunction.

PRACTICE A

Study the relationship of words in the following article. How will you do this work? A graphic analysis made by everyone gives every member of the class an opportunity to do all the work, and class discussion then enables everyone to check his own work.

THE WORLD'S MOST BEAUTIFUL HARBOR

¹Three beautiful bays form the harbor of the most magnificent seaport in the world, Rio de Janeiro. ²The approach to Rio from the sea is very impressive. ³Ships enter the great bay between steep, rocky mountain sentinels, for the mountains come down to the sea. ⁴Glistening white beaches lie at the water's edge, and steep peaks of all sizes and shapes rise sharply from the shore. ⁵The most famous of the peaks are Tijaca [tee hah'kah], Sugar Loaf, and Corcovado [kor koh vah'thoh]. ⁶They are visible from almost every part of the bay and the city. ⁷Sugar Loaf rises abruptly from the sea, and the

other two tower above their neighboring peaks. ⁸ Corcovado, "the hunchback," slopes gradually upward to 2300 feet on one side, but on the other side it drops in a sheer straight line to the city below. ⁹ On the top of this rocky pinnacle a huge statue of Christ the Redeemer stands above the city with outstretched arms. ¹⁰ The statue is 100 feet high, and it can be seen from the surrounding country. ¹¹ After dark the statue is ingeniously lighted. ¹² Indeed, it apparently floats above the city in the heavens.

*PRACTICE B

Use the following word groups in original sentences as clauses in compound sentences or as parenthetical expressions of one kind or another. After each sentence you write, indicate the way in which you have used the assigned word group.

1. a deep channel between rocky promontories
2. palaces, monuments, avenues, and parks
3. the most majestic of all trees, the royal palm
4. a wide, tree-bordered street
5. the street is more than a mile wide
6. we could drink coffee at the sidewalk cafes at all hours of the day
7. the three-day Mardi Gras festival
8. nature is lavish with color in this land
9. flowers, birds, and leaves of vivid tints
10. the climate is kind

3. The clauses of a compound sentence are usually connected by a co-ordinate conjunction which is preceded by a comma.

Notice the punctuation of this sentence: *A more thrilling trip could never be made, and more gorgeous scenery could not be imagined.* Before the conjunction *and*, which connects the two independent clauses, is a comma. When the clauses of a compound sentence are connected by a conjunction, a comma usually precedes the conjunction. In this way the writer separates

one clause from the other, and makes his thought clear to his reader at a glance.

This punctuation need not be followed when the clauses are very brief. Suppose the compound sentence were *The explorers worried and the sailors sang*. These clauses are very brief. In fact, you can read the entire sentence at a glance; consequently, a comma is not absolutely necessary to make the meaning clear for the reader.

Conjunctions that connect the clauses of a compound sentence are called *co-ordinate conjunctions*. *Co-ordinate* means *of equal rank*. Co-ordinate conjunctions connect equal clauses or other elements used in the same grammatical way, that is, as subjects, predicates, modifiers, objects, or predicate nouns, pronouns, or adjectives.

The most common co-ordinate conjunctions are *and*, *but*, *or*, *nor*, *for*. Each of these conjunctions has a definite meaning. *And* means *in addition to*. *But* means *in contrast to this*. *Or* and *nor* mean *on the other hand*. *For* means *and the explanation is* or *for example*. Each of these conjunctions must be used correctly with its exact meaning.

The article "Flying Over Chile," page 126, contains several conjunctions. These conjunctions are all co-ordinate. Why? The reason is that they connect clauses of equal rank or elements used in the same grammatical way.

Why not work these sample exercises to review the facts you have studied about compound sentences?

(1)

Select the clauses in the paragraph "Flying Over Chile"; show how the compound elements are used.

(2)

Select the compound sentences in "Flying Over Chile" and analyze them graphically.

(3)

List the words from "Flying Over Chile" that are followed by commas, and after each comma account for its use.

FLYING OVER CHILE

¹ You could cross the Andes by railroad, by muleback, or by pack train. ² We prefer air travel, however, for it gives a view of all Chile. ³ First we would fly over Northern Chile, the mining section. ⁴ There is the Atacama Desert, the driest place on earth. ⁵ Rivers in this part of Chile are lost in its parched sands. ⁶ In the mountain peaks of this region lie Chile's rich deposits of copper, iron, and coal. ⁷ Next we would wing our way over Central Chile. ⁸ It rains here in winter, and consequently this part of Chile has good agricultural land and valuable pasturage area. ⁹ Full, wide rivers flow through this section, and they are used for summer irrigation. ¹⁰ Wheat raising and manufacturing are man's main work here. ¹¹ Our plane would probably land at the hilly, busy port of Valparaiso. ¹² On our way again we would soon be flying over the lake region, the "Switzerland of South America," with its shining lakes between mountain peaks. ¹³ We would look down upon the inspiring, world-famous "Christ of the Andes," a monument erected to international peace by the people of Chile and Argentina. ¹⁴ Later we would fly over hundreds of islands, large and small, to the Strait of Magellan and on to the main island of Tierra del Fuego. ¹⁵ There we would see vessels, tiny specks on the winding canals of this vast plain. ¹⁶ This part of Chile is rich in lumber and sheep and coal.

The compound sentences in this paragraph consist of clauses closely related in thought. Only such clauses should be joined into compound sentences.

You may find compound sentences in your reading in which the comma is not used to separate one clause from another. In such cases the writer probably thought the reader did not need the help of the comma. In your writing at this time, it is best to be consistent in the use of a comma before the conjunc-

tion that connects the clauses of a compound sentence. Omit the comma only when the compound sentence is brief.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. In a compound sentence a comma precedes the conjunction that connects the independent clauses.
2. The common co-ordinate conjunctions are "or," "for," "nor," "and," "but."
3. The independent clauses which make up a compound sentence should be closely related.

PRACTICE A

In the sentences of the following article, "A Rich but Barren Land," you will find compound sentences and compound elements.

(1)

Analyze graphically the sentences in the article.

(2)

List all words followed by commas and indicate the reason for each comma.

A RICH BUT BARREN LAND

The Atacama Desert

¹ Atacama Desert is the hottest and driest place in the world. ² It is, however, renowned for its apparently inexhaustible supply of nitrate of soda. ³ Nitrate of soda is used for fertilizer, and explosives for all purposes depend upon its power. ⁴ The entire region receives no rainfall. ⁵ Therefore rain cannot dissolve and wash away the valuable salts. ⁶ In some places nitrate of soda lies close to the surface, a glaring grayish-white expanse. ⁷ In other sections of this 450-mile desert, the top layer is sand, and then a layer of rock covers the nitrate ore.

Refining Nitrate Ore

¹ Electric drills plant charges of explosives, and the ore is thrown out in great chunks. ² It is then taken to a near-by refinery. ³ There it is crushed, and the nitrate is dissolved in boiling water. ⁴ The water is later drained into huge drying vats for evaporation. ⁵ The residue has its value, for iodine is one of the important by-products and is a valuable export. ⁶ The hot, dry, desert air quickly completes the evaporation process, and the nitrate crystallizes. ⁷ Fertilizer factories, powder plants, and chemical factories all over the world receive the nitrate in its crystal form. ⁸ On all exports of nitrate the government of Chile receives a tax. ⁹ As a matter of fact, the export of nitrate produced one fourth of Chile's revenue before World War I, for the quantities exported were enormous. ¹⁰ Since that time, however, the artificial production of nitrates has been developed in practically all countries, and poor Chile has suffered greatly financially.

PRACTICE B

These extra exercises give you opportunities to write original compound elements and compound sentences.

(1)

Show your understanding of the exact meaning of the five most common co-ordinate conjunctions by writing each in an original sentence.

(2)

The following are brief simple sentences. Make each sentence compound by adding a second closely related thought. Also add to each sentence a compound element.

1. Chile is a long country.
2. Narrow valleys extend the entire length of Chile.
3. Each of its thirty great mountain peaks is higher than any mountain in North America.
4. In one section rain is almost unknown.
5. Rivers from the melting snow traverse this narrow country.

4. Compound sentences without co-ordinate conjunctions are punctuated with a semicolon.

You have learned that compound sentences are made up of independent clauses connected by co-ordinate conjunctions. Sometimes the conjunction is omitted, as in this sentence: *In the capital of Colombia the schools are excellent; they might well be models for all South American countries.*

Notice how this sentence is punctuated. A semicolon is used to separate the two independent clauses. A semicolon indicates a more decided break in thought than a comma, but not so great a break as a period. Whenever the co-ordinate conjunction is omitted in a compound sentence, use a semicolon to separate one clause from another.

Read the following article, paying special attention to the marks of punctuation within the sentences.

OUR GOOD NEIGHBOR, COLOMBIA

¹ Athens, Greece was the cultural center of the ancient world; Bogotá, Colombia, is the cultural center of all South America. ² The best writing in South America has been done by the citizens of Colombia; her writers have given Colombia a high rank in modern literature. ³ In the capital of Colombia the schools are excellent; they might well be models for all South American countries. ⁴ The press of Bogotá is unusually free; daily the editors of her papers write stimulating editorials. ⁵ No censor stifles the expression of these thoughts; no ambitious owner dictates the policies of the writers. ⁶ Yes, Bogotá is the cultural center of South America; it is also the capital of a very progressive South American country. ⁷ Originally the name of the country was New Granada; in 1863 the name became Colombia in honor of Columbus. ⁸ For forty years Colombia has been a true democracy; it has held regular elections, the elected have taken office, and they have served their full terms.

The paragraph on Colombia contains several compound sentences in which the independent clauses are not connected by co-ordinate conjunctions. In every such sentence a semicolon separates the two clauses.

Notice the punctuation of sentence 8: *For forty years Colombia has been a true democracy; it has held regular elections, the elected have taken office, and they have served their full terms.* You will agree that the semicolon is the correct punctuation, since two independent clauses are not connected by a co-ordinate conjunction. But you may think that a semicolon should be used in place of the comma to separate *it has held regular elections* and *the elected have taken office*. Read the sentence again. Notice that the last three independent clauses make a series of clauses. The correct punctuation of a series is a comma between every two terms. This rule accounts for the use of the commas.

Can you account for all the commas in "Our Good Neighbor, Colombia"? Try it, as a sample exercise. Show that you know the rule for each.

◆ THESE TWO RULES ARE IMPORTANT:

1. Use a comma before the co-ordinate conjunction that connects the independent clauses of a compound sentence.
2. When the co-ordinate conjunction is omitted in a compound sentence, use a semicolon between the clauses.

PRACTICE A

The following paragraph is incompletely punctuated. On a sheet of paper write every word that should be followed by a punctuation mark, insert the correct mark, and state the reason for its use. Your teacher may also want you to analyze some of the sentences.

THE CACAO TREE

¹ Did you ever wish for a chocolate tree? ² Take another piece of fudge and thank the cacao tree for it furnishes the world both choco-

late and cocoa. ³ It is a strange rather ugly-looking tree. ⁴ Its home is the moist tropical lowlands of South America but the enterprising people of Colombia and Ecuador have planted great plantations of this valuable product. ⁵ The rich alluvial soil of their coastal plain raises cacao beans of superior size and quality. ⁶ The trees are planted quite close together. ⁷ Their trunks shade the soil at the roots. ⁸ The trees are usually not large they have bare queer-looking branches with few leaves. ⁹ At flowering time the tree looks its loveliest it is covered then with a mass of small pink flowers. ¹⁰ These flowers grow directly from the trunk and cover the tree with color. ¹¹ Not one flower in forty blossoms matures into fruit for the tree could not carry so great a weight. ¹² The large cinnamon-brown pods hang rigidly against the tree in fact they must be cut away with a sharp knife. ¹³ Each pod looks like a football and contains many beans.

*PRACTICE B

Write an original paragraph that may be used as a dictation exercise in punctuation. See that the paragraph contains compound sentences that are punctuated by a comma and by a semicolon.

5. Conjunctive adverbs are sometimes used to join independent clauses in compound sentences. These words show different relationships between the ideas expressed in the independent clauses.

Read the following article and notice especially the italicized words.

A GREAT SOUTH AMERICAN HERO

The Naming of Venezuela

¹ During the early period of exploration, a Spanish colonist came upon an Indian village. ² It was built of the usual thatched houses; *however*, this village was different from others. ³ The little houses were built out over the water on stilts; *indeed*, the village reminded the Spaniard of Venice in Italy. ⁴ At once he gave the name

of Venezuela [veh nah zwee'luh] to this place; *accordingly*, Venezuela has been the country's name. ⁵ Venezuela means "Little Venice." ⁶ Venezuela is the land of Simon Bolivar, the great liberator of South America.

Early Life of Simon Bolivar

¹ Simon Bolivar was born in Caracas [kah rah'kahs] in 1783. ² His family was both wealthy and conservative; *however*, Bolivar was greatly influenced by his tutor, an idealistic and liberty-loving man. ³ At sixteen he went to Spain and attended a university there; *still* his life's work was not apparent. ⁴ At twenty-one he was in Paris; there he witnessed the coronation of Napoleon. ⁵ He was greatly impressed by the love of the people for their leader; *thereby* his own desire for leadership was encouraged.

BOLIVAR'S WORK OF LIBERATION

¹ In 1810 Bolivar returned to South America; *then* he began the work of liberation. ² For thirteen years he led his armies; *meanwhile* he experienced defeat and victory. ³ Bolivar first conceived the idea of American unity; *therefore*, he was really the father of Pan-Americanism. ⁴ He called the first conference of American states; *however*, the American countries were not ready for this idea. ⁵ Bolivar was years in advance of his people. ⁶ Bolivar was general, president, protector, and dictator; *nevertheless*, at the time of his death he was alone and almost forgotten.

In these articles each italicized word is a connecting word. For example, in "The Naming of Venezuela," page 131, *however* connects two independent clauses in sentence 2, which is a compound sentence: *It was built of the usual thatched houses; however, this village was different from others.* *However* also has the use of an adverb in the sentence. Since *however* connects two clauses as a conjunction does and is also used as an adverb, it is called a *conjunctive adverb*.

Other conjunctive adverbs frequently used are *besides*, *consequently*, *furthermore*, *hence*, *in fact*, *likewise*, *moreover*, *other-*

wise, so, then, thence, whereas, and while. Wherever these words are used to join separate but related ideas, they are conjunctive adverbs. When two independent clauses are connected by a conjunctive adverb, a semicolon precedes the joining word.

You will never use all of these conjunctive adverbs at one time in either your written or your oral work. They are given so that you may recognize them and understand their use. They add variety to your language when used sparingly and properly.

You have learned that these words are sometimes parenthetical. Read again pages 99-101. If a word is used parenthetically, it should be set off by commas.

Some people feel that their thought can be as well expressed by using a comma as by using a semicolon within a sentence before a clause introduced by the conjunctive adverb *so*. Others do not agree. In this book we use a semicolon before every adverbial conjunction which introduces a clause within a sentence.

As a sample exercise discuss the punctuation in "A Great South American Hero" with your teacher and classmates. You will find the adverb *there* used in this sentence: *At twenty-one he was in Paris; there he witnessed the coronation of Napoleon.* *There* is not a conjunctive adverb; it is simply an adverb used to modify the verb *witnessed*. This sentence has no co-ordinate conjunction. That fact alone accounts for the semicolon.

◆ REMEMBER THESE POINTS:

1. A conjunctive adverb is a conjunction used as an adverb. It may connect the independent clauses of a compound sentence.
2. A semicolon precedes a conjunctive adverb when it connects independent clauses.

PRACTICE A

The following article demands most of the punctuation you have studied in this book. Read each sentence carefully; then list the words that should be followed by punctuation and indicate the proper mark and the reason for each.

VENEZUELA'S WEALTH

Products of the Subsoil

¹ The two most valuable exports of Venezuela petroleum and gold come from below the surface of the soil. ² The petroleum industry of Venezuela made a very dramatic entrance into the world's market and its early record has never been surpassed. ³ One well on the shore of Lake Maracaibo [mah'rah kai'boh] produced a million barrels of oil in ten days. ⁴ For centuries before the white man's coming to America the Indians had used the oil from the shores of Lake Maracaibo. ⁵ Little commercial development of the region was made however until the twentieth century then foreign capital drilled wells. ⁶ The whole field near the lake was phenomenally rich in oil. ⁷ Wells were immediately dug on the lowlands beside the lake in the shallow waters and on the sandy shore in fact the whole region became a vast network of oil wells. ⁸ The crude oil is carried by pipe line the cheapest method to the nearest seaport Maracaibo thence it goes by steamer to the near-by Dutch island of Curaçao [koo'rah sah'oh]. ⁹ The petroleum industry of Venezuela has become its greatest source of revenue in fact petroleum comprises 85 per cent of all Venezuela's exports. ¹⁰ The government of Venezuela put a tax on the export of oil so a huge revenue has been its reward. ¹¹ All government expenditures have been met by this tax therefore the country was free from debt for a long time.

Health from Trees and Plants

¹ Venezuela lies wholly in the torrid zone therefore in the lowlands it is a very hot country however the high plateaus and mountains have a temperate pleasant climate. ² Both regions are highly productive and each produces its own type of agricultural products.

³ Dense forests cover the hot lowlands along the rivers these forests yield valuable products rubber balata a gutta-percha gum and tonka beans. ⁴ The long almond-shaped fragrant tonka beans are used for flavorings and perfumes. ⁵ Banana sugar and tobacco plantations thrive on the cleared lowlands whereas coffee plantations need the higher hill slopes. ⁶ The cacao tree grows wild in the forests further-

more great plantations of cacao produce a superior quality of cacao bean. ⁷This product also is a valuable export. ⁸The Venezuelans raise corn beans and rice for their own use. ⁹Huge herds of cattle and horses range the llanos [lyah'nohs] the grassy central plains so hides are exported in great quantities.

*PRACTICE B

Are you sure you can make your thought clear to your readers by correct punctuation when you write compound sentences? Write ten original compound sentences in which the independent clauses are not connected by co-ordinate conjunctions. To each sentence add one of the following, correctly punctuated.

1. A series of nouns
2. A parenthetical word group
3. An appositive
4. A series of independent clauses
5. An adverbial noun
6. A series of phrases
7. A series of predicates
8. An adjective modified by an adverb
9. An adverb modified by an adverb
10. A fairly long introductory phrase

Your teacher may want you to write these sentences on the blackboard and then discuss them with your classmates.

6. Review of compound elements and compound sentences.

Read the following article and notice the punctuation, especially the use of the comma and the dash.

A WARM MOUNTAIN LAKE

¹ Halfway between Panama, just above the northern tip of South America, and Cape Horn, at the southern end, is beautiful Lake Titicaca [tee'tee kah'kah]. ² The highest navigable lake in the world, it lies at the great elevation of 12,500 feet above sea level, half in Peru

and half in Bolivia. ³ The waters of the lake should presumably freeze in winter; however, they are always fairly warm. ⁴ Even in the cold months, June, July, and August — it seems strange that winter is in summer there — the temperature rarely goes below thirty degrees; indeed, anyone can usually have a daily swim in Lake Titicaca throughout the entire year. ⁵ Apparently the rim of snow-capped mountains or the lake itself has some unusual effect upon the temperature: the mountains may hold the warm air in, the lake may create warm currents, or the lake may have warm springs in it. ⁶ This mountain lake is 155 miles long, and it is 66 miles wide.

This article contains most of the punctuation you have studied in this unit. It also has two marks that may be new to you. One mark is the dash. Sentence 4 illustrates the most common use of the dash. The clause, *it seems strange that winter is in summer there*, is a break in the thought of the sentence. To show that fact, dashes set off the clause that makes the break in thought.

Another use of the dash is shown in the following sentence: *Rare jewels, bands of beaten gold and silver, and gold nuggets — all these decorations covered the temples and palaces.* The dash is used before the word *all*, which sums up the items mentioned before, namely, *rare jewels, bands of beaten gold and silver, and gold nuggets*. When you mention a long series and wish to sum it up, you may use a dash before the summing-up word.

Usual practice, as interpreted by others, limits our use of the dash to these two occasions. To use a dash in place of a comma is without real meaning.

Another mark you have not studied is used in sentence 5 of "Earlier Than Columbus." This is the colon (:) which appears after the main clause. The colon tells the reader that a formal listing is coming immediately. In this sentence the writer says *the rim of the mountains has an unusual effect upon the temperature*, and then he lists possible causes. In using the colon, he

sure that the idea of listing is evident; insert the colon immediately before the list.

The other marks in the article you should know well. As a sample exercise jot down on a piece of paper every word in the article "Earlier Than Columbus" that is followed by a mark of punctuation. Indicate the reason for each mark. Why not analyze a few of the sentences to make certain that you understand the relationship of words in the sentences?

◆ THESE FACTS ARE IMPORTANT:

1. *A sentence may contain compound elements connected by a conjunction.*
2. *A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses.*
3. *Unless independent clauses are very short, a comma precedes the co-ordinate conjunction that connects them.*
4. *A semicolon is used between two clauses when no co-ordinate conjunction is used.*
5. *A semicolon precedes the conjunctive adverb that connects independent clauses.*
6. *A dash indicates a break in thought or a summing up.*
7. *A colon is used before a formal listing.*

PRACTICE A

On a sheet of paper list from the following incompletely punctuated letter every word that should be followed by a mark of punctuation. Insert the mark and indicate the reason for it.

A LETTER FROM LIMA

Lima [lee'mah] Peru
August 24 1946

Dear Lois

¹ Here we are in Lima the wonderful old capital of Peru. ² Every minute of the airplane trip from Quito [kee'toh] the capital of Ecuador was a thrilling adventure nevertheless the week here rivals those experiences. ³ Later I shall tell you about the plane its capable crew

and the gorgeous scenery in the Andes. ⁴ The passengers were a typical west-coast group two Chileans three Peruvians a delightful Scotch lady an American engineer and the two of us.

⁵ Yes my first glimpse of Lima certainly fascinated me. ⁶ Interesting old buildings of the Spanish days churches with chiming bells the cathedral rich in treasures museums with priceless Inca relics narrow streets with tempting shops which should we visit first?

⁷ Can you guess my choice? ⁸ Yes I went first to the great city square the Plaza de Armas. ⁹ Here the modern and the ancient join hands

indeed that contrast is apparent almost everywhere in Lima. ¹⁰ An ancient fountain stands in the center of the plaza. ¹¹ On one side the

old cathedral with its twin towers reaches for the sky adjoining is the Archbishop's palace. ¹² Across the plaza stands the Independence Hall of Peru. ¹³ There San Martín [sahn mahr teen'] Peru's self-sacrificing liberator announced the liberation of the country in 1822.

¹⁴ The fourth side of the plaza is covered by the magnificent and enormous new palace of the President of Peru. ¹⁵ It is a dignified elegant old plaza and I could have spent days there.

¹⁶ Yesterday we motored to Callao [kahl yah'oh] the seaport eight miles down the mountainside. ¹⁷ It is a busy modern port now with probably the finest docks in all South America however it too has seen its share of history. ¹⁸ Ships were unloading machinery automobiles canned goods lumber and coal for poor Peru has little building material and no coal. ¹⁹ Freighters steamers tankers launches all maneuvered carefully and quickly in the crowded harbor. ²⁰ I saw Peru's exports too cotton sugar copper silver and gold. ²¹ Petroleum first in importance goes from northern ports.

²² I shall go to Callao again then I shall take the trip up the Peruvian Central Railroad. ²³ It climbs 16,000 feet within 100 miles of the coast moreover it is a succession of tunnels bridges and switchbacks consequently the scenery is magnificent. ²⁴ The famous Cerro de Pasco [say'rroh day pahs'koh] silver and copper mine is the railway's terminal in fact it was built for the use of the mine.

²⁵ Letters take time I shall talk at home and what long tales I shall tell.

As ever

JoAnne

*PRACTICE B

(1)

Here is a puzzle. Below are all the elements of three sentences of one paragraph. Put them together, jigsaw fashion, so that the punctuation and capitalization used here have to be retained.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. In June, at the end of the school year, | 8. and Venezuela. |
| 2. I want to see Callao, | 9. shall start out for a tour |
| 3. of Colombia, Peru, | 10. my Father wants to visit the oil wells of Venezuela; |
| 4. We shall | 11. for centuries the only legal port for the South American colonies. |
| 5. Mother wants to study the ruins of the Incas; | 12. however, we shall also go by boat and train. |
| 6. travel mostly by plane; | 13. Peru, |
| 7. my father and mother and sister and I | |

(2)

Here is the second part of the puzzle. Below are the elements of four sentences, which form a second paragraph. Put them together, jigsaw fashion, just as you did those above.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. hence, the King of Spain protected his booty. | 9. a means of protecting merchant ships that is sometimes used in modern days. |
| 2. The robbers of the sea, | 10. From this port the Spanish galleons |
| 3. a law that everything entering or leaving South America must go through Callao. | 11. lay in wait for |
| 4. Dutch buccaneers, English privateers, French corsairs, | 12. however, merchandise also was later accompanied by convoy. |
| 5. gold, and silver, | 13. were convoyed; |
| 6. He created a new law, | 14. the stately Spanish ships of former times; |
| 7. At first only precious metals, | |
| 8. set out for Spain with a convoy of warships, | |

Books About South America

Some of these books will interest you, if you wish to know more about the countries of South America.

Along the Inca Highway, by Alida Sims Malkus. In "New World Neighbors" Series, D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1941

Argentina. Introd. by Alberto Caprile, Jr. Edited by Laszlo Fodor. Hastings House, Publishers, New York, 1941

Boys of the Andes, by Alice Desmond, Alida Malkus, and Ednah Wood. D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1941

Brazil. Introd. by Francisco Silva, Jr. Edited by Laszlo Fodor. Hastings House, Publishers, New York, 1940

The Enchanted Jungle, by Isadore Lhevinne. Coward-McCann, New York, 1933

Let's See South America, by Ann Witherspoon. The Southern Publishing Co., Dallas, 1939

Liberators and Heroes of South America, by Marion Lansing. L. C. Page and Company, Boston, 1940

My Hike (Buenos Aires to New York), by Augusto Flores. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1929

Neighbors to the South, by Delia Goetz. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1941

North America and South America, by G. R. Bodley and E. L. Thurston. Iroquois Publishing Company, New York, 1941

Picture Map Geography of South America, by Vernon Quinn. Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York, 1941

The Story of the Other America, by Richard C. Gill and Helen Hoke. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1941

UNIT SEVEN

Complex Sentences

Many sentences you use are neither simple nor compound. What are such sentences? They are complex sentences. Since this kind of sentence appears often in your speech and writing, you should understand the relationship of words in a complex sentence.

The purpose of this unit is to give you a thorough understanding of complex sentences so that you will be able to use them easily in expressing meanings.

1. A complex sentence contains at least one independent clause and one dependent clause. The dependent clause may be an adjective clause.

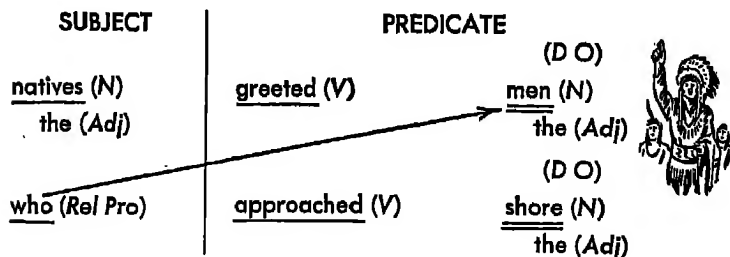
Notice the underscored words in this sentence: *The natives greeted the men who approached the shore.* You see that *who approached the shore* is a clause because it has a subject and a predicate. You know that it is a dependent clause because it depends upon the other clause in the sentence for its meaning. Any sentence that contains a dependent clause is a complex sentence.

A complex sentence, as you will see later, may contain more than one dependent clause.

Study the relationship of words in the following analysis.

SENTENCE: The natives greeted the men who approached the shore.

ANALYSIS



The independent clause is *the natives greeted the men*. Its subject, verb, and object are *natives greeted men*. The subject, verb, and object of the dependent clause are *who approached shore*. The pronoun *who*, which refers to *men* and is used in place of *men*, is the subject of the dependent clause. The entire dependent clause is a modifier of *men*. It tells "which" men, namely, *men who approached the shore*. Because this clause is used like an adjective to modify a noun, it is an adjective clause. In the analysis the arrow drawn from the word *who* to the word *men* shows that the dependent clause modifies *men*.

Dependent clauses are frequently used as adjective modifiers. An adjective clause may modify any noun in a sentence. Generally an adjective clause is introduced by *who*, *whose*, *whom*, *which*, or *that*. Since these words are used in place of nouns, they are pronouns; and since they relate one word to another, they are called relative pronouns. In a graphic analysis use the abbreviation (Rel Pro) to indicate a relative pronoun. The correct use of each relative pronoun is discussed on pages 270-287.

Read the following article, as a sample exercise, and find all the dependent clauses and the noun each modifies.

CANADA, OUR GOOD NEIGHBOR TO THE NORTH

White Men Go to Canada

¹ In 1533 three small ships with Cartier, the Frenchman, and his men on board sailed up a river in the New World. ² The natives greeted the men who approached the shore. ³ The Indians, who had never before seen white men, sang wild songs and danced excitedly. ⁴ They shouted strange words, which the white men could not understand. ⁵ The Indian leader exclaimed "Kanata" and pointed to the small settlement of huts on the shore. ⁶ Thus the name of our good neighbor to the north became Kanata, which was later pronounced "Canada."

The Land and People


¹ Canada is a great land, which reaches from the Atlantic to the Pacific. ² Canada has nine provinces, which are like our states, and two territories, like Alaska. ³ Canada extends north nearly to the North Pole. ⁴ The St. Lawrence River, which forms part of the boundary between Canada and the United States, is a great waterway. ⁵ Canada has a population of twelve million inhabitants, who live principally in the large centers. ⁶ Canada has vast areas, which have very little human life.

As you have seen, sentence 2 of "White Men Go to Canada" contains an adjective clause; so does sentence 3. Each of these sentences contains two clauses, one independent, the other dependent. What are they? Don't think that the dependent clause always follows the independent clause. The dependent clause may come anywhere in a sentence. First, find the introductory word of the dependent clause. Read sentence 3 again. The word that introduces the dependent clause is *who*. Now you can easily point out the dependent clause; it is *who had never before seen white men*. The word *who* refers to *Indians*; therefore the de-

pendent clause modifies *Indians*. The word *Indians* is called the antecedent of *who*. Here is the analysis.

SENTENCE: The Indians, who had never before seen white men, sang wild songs and danced excitedly.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
<u>Indians</u> (N)	(D O)
↑ the (Adj)	<u>sang</u> (V)
	<u>songs</u> (N)
	wild (Adj)
	and (Conj)
	<u>danced</u> (V)
	excitedly (Adv)
	
	(D O)
<u>who</u> (Rel Pro)	<u>had seen</u> (V)
	before (Adv)
	never (Adv)
	<u>men</u> (N)
	white (Adj)


Since this sentence has an independent clause and a dependent clause, it is a complex sentence. The dependent clause is used as an adjective to modify *Indians*. Notice that the predicate of the independent clause is a compound element, *sang and danced*. *Sang* has the complement *songs*.

Not all the sentences in the two articles on Canada are complex. Some are simple sentences with compound elements; some are compound sentences. Whenever you analyze a sentence, you must first study it to find out how many clauses it has and what kind they are.

Study sentence 2 of "The Land and People."

SENTENCE: They shouted strange words, which the white men could not understand.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE		
<u>they</u> (Pro)	<u>shouted</u> (V)	(D O) <u>words</u> (N)	
		↑ <u>strange</u> (Adj)	
		(D O) <u>which</u> (Rel Pro)	
<u>men</u> (N) <u>white</u> (Adj) <u>the</u> (Adj)	<u>could understand</u> (V) <u>not</u> (Adv)		

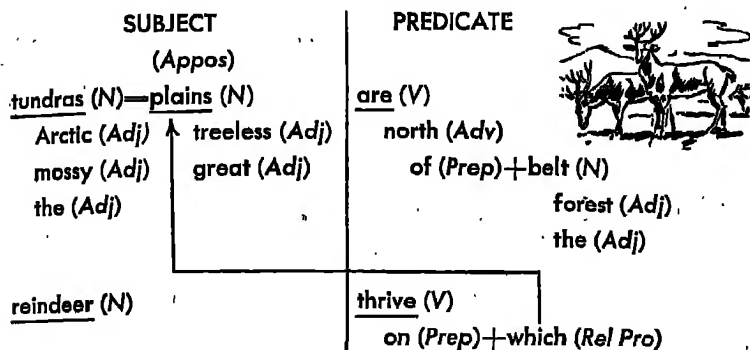
The dependent clause is *which the white men could not understand*. Find the subject by taking the verb and asking "who": *who could not understand?* The answer is *men*. That noun is the subject of the clause. Find the direct object of *understand* by asking *men could not understand "what"?* The answer is *which*, the relative pronoun, whose antecedent is *words*. In order to know the relationship of words in an adjective clause, find its parts and their modifiers. If you take this step thoughtfully, you will make no errors.

Now read again the fifth sentence in "White Men Go to Canada": *The Indian leader exclaimed "Kanata" and pointed to the small settlement of huts on the shore*. Is this a compound or complex sentence? A study of the sentence shows that the sentence has one subject, *the Indian leader* and two predicates, namely, *exclaimed Kanata* and *pointed to the small settlement of huts on the shore*. The sentence is therefore a simple sentence with a compound predicate.

Study the analysis of the following sentence.

SENTENCE: North of the forest belt are the mossy Arctic tundras, great treeless plains, on which reindeer thrive.

ANALYSIS



The dependent clause *on which reindeer thrive* modifies the noun *plains*. *Plains* is the antecedent of the relative pronoun *which*. Notice that the preposition *on* introduces the dependent clause. The reason for this order is that generally a preposition is not separated from its object. Notice, too, that *which* is the object of the preposition. A relative pronoun has the same use as a noun and therefore can be the object of a preposition.

Before you work the exercise in this lesson, study thoroughly the sentences in "Canada, Our Good Neighbor to the North." Analyze graphically the sentences in it and discuss the various elements of the sentences with your classmates and teacher.

◆ REMEMBER:

1. A clause that depends upon another part of the sentence for its meaning is a dependent clause.
2. Dependent clauses may be used as adjectives.
3. Dependent adjective clauses are introduced by the relative pronouns "who," "whom," "whose," "which," "that."
4. The word to which a relative pronoun refers is the antecedent of the pronoun.

5. A complex sentence contains at least one dependent clause and one independent clause.

PRACTICE A

Analyze each complex sentence in the following article, and show the relationship of each dependent clause to the independent clause. You may analyze the sentences graphically, or you may analyze only the dependent clause, indicating the noun it modifies.

CANADA'S GREAT WEALTH

The Sea and Forest Produce Wealth

¹ Canada is rich in natural resources. ² This great country has everything that produces wealth. ³ The amazing fisheries of the eastern coast first attracted adventurers, who saw wealth in the sea. ⁴ They remained and settled the eastern provinces, which are washed by Atlantic waters. ⁵ Next it was the marvelous richness of the fur trade that drew adventurous people north and westward. ⁶ For many years Canada's cold northland has supported the trapper, upon whom the great fur industry depends. ⁷ Some of these trappers, who hunted in the forests, saw another source of wealth. ⁸ They felled the trees, which grew in such unlimited quantities. ⁹ Fir trees, pine trees, spruce, hemlock, cedar — all have gone to the sawmills. ¹⁰ Their products have developed the lumber industry, which is one of Canada's greatest sources of wealth. ¹¹ Every year the spruce forests yield three million tons of newsprint paper, which is sold principally to the United States. ¹² In fact, papermaking is Canada's chief manufacturing industry. ¹³ Certain chemists, whose special study is wood products, are constantly finding new uses for wood and wood pulp.

Agriculture Produces Wealth

¹ Agriculture is the industry that produces Canada's greatest wealth. ² Miles of waving wheat, whose hardy qualities have been especially bred for this cold section, stretch through the prairie provinces. ³ Storage elevators like sentinels line the railways which

cross the Dominion. ⁴ From ports on Hudson Bay, from Vancouver in the West, and from Montreal in the East, Canada pours her golden grain into the markets of the world.

Another Source of Wealth

¹ Finally, Canada has still another great natural source of wealth. ² The mountains of Canada, which cover millions of square miles, are rich in gold, silver, copper, nickel, and other metals. ³ In fact, mining is another industry that produces great wealth for Canada. ⁴ Another important fact we must remember about our northern neighbor. ⁵ At famous Great Bear Lake, Canada has a rich mineral deposit of pitchblende, which is used in the splitting of the atom.

*PRACTICE B

In a magazine article which you have found interesting, pick out ten adjective clauses. Remember that each such clause is introduced by a relative pronoun. What word do you think each clause modifies? Present your sentences to your classmates and see whether they agree with you.

2. The adjective clause in a complex sentence may be either restrictive or nonrestrictive.

What is the dependent clause in such a sentence as this: *The river that the Canadians like best is the lovely St. Lawrence?* A moment's thought will show you that it is *that the Canadians like best*. This clause is absolutely necessary to the meaning of the sentence; without it the sentence would read *The river is the lovely St. Lawrence*. This group of words lacks the meaning the writer intended to convey. At once the reader would ask, "What river?" The dependent clause limits the meaning of the river to the river *that the Canadians like best*. You can see that this clause is a limiting or restricting modifier. A clause that is needed in order to make clear the meaning of a noun is called a restrictive clause. Because such a clause has a very close

and necessary relationship to the word it modifies, a restrictive clause is not set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Study the underscored dependent adjective clause in this sentence: *This river, which was the first highway for the French explorers, is the most beautiful entrance to Canada.* When the dependent clause is omitted, the sentence is *This river is the most beautiful entrance to Canada.* Without the adjective clause the thought is perfectly clear. *Which was the first highway for the French explorers* simply adds another idea about the river. Because the clause does not restrict the noun it modifies, it is called a nonrestrictive clause. Commas are used to set off a nonrestrictive clause from the rest of the sentence.

When used with its exact meaning, the relative pronoun *that* introduces a restrictive clause. *That* should not be used to introduce a nonrestrictive clause. You may notice in your reading that *who* and *which* as well as *that* are often used to introduce nonrestrictive clauses. But if you want to emphasize the fact that a clause is restrictive and make the meaning of the sentence unmistakably clear, you can do so by introducing the clause with *that*.

Read thoughtfully the sentences in the following article, paying special attention to the dependent clauses and their punctuation.

THE GASPÉ

¹ The river that the Canadians like best is the lovely St. Lawrence.

² This river, which was the first highway for the French explorers, is the most beautiful entrance to Canada. ³ The southern shore of the St. Lawrence, near the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is the Gaspé [gas'pay'] Peninsula, a place that everyone should visit. ⁴ The people live almost entirely along the winding coast, for most men in the Gaspé are descendants of French fishermen, who came here long ago. ⁵ One road circles the entire peninsula, on which you meet the French Canadians in their oxcarts and with their dogcarts. ⁶ Each community has its church, to which the people contribute generously. ⁷ The

peaceful, unassuming, and quiet inhabitants, whom you will meet in the small villages, clean their fish on outdoor stands, bake their bread in outdoor ovens, weave their cloth on outdoor looms—all this work they do in the old-fashioned way, which was used a hundred years ago.

The sentences in the foregoing article contain practically all the elements you have studied in this book and will give you two helpful sample exercises.

(1) Account for each comma in the paragraphs. Find the restrictive clauses that demand no commas.

(2) Analyze some of the sentences in order to be certain that you understand the relationship of words in complex sentences as well as in compound sentences. Be prepared to write these analyses at the direction of your teacher. Discuss them with your teacher and classmates.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. A restrictive adjective clause is so closely related to the noun it modifies that it is not set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.
2. A nonrestrictive adjective clause adds information that is not essential to the meaning of the sentence. Commas are used to set off nonrestrictive clauses.

PRACTICE A

The following article contains incompletely punctuated sentences. Make a list of the words that must be followed by commas. Indicate the reason for each comma. Find the sentences that contain restrictive adjective clauses.

CANADA'S MARITIME PROVINCES

Nova Scotia

¹The three provinces of Canada that lie on the Atlantic seaboard are called the Maritime Provinces. ²They are little Prince Edward Island Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. ³In America

Nova Scotia is one of the oldest European settlements that lie north of the Gulf of Mexico. ⁴ The name Nova Scotia is the Latin for New Scotland. ⁵ Halifax the capital has a magnificent natural harbor which is six miles long and a mile wide. ⁶ Throughout the long winter months this harbor is free of ice. ⁷ The St. Lawrence ports which are Quebec and Montreal are icebound for several months of the year. ⁸ Quantities of fish fresh dried and canned are exported annually. ⁹ The other great industry of Nova Scotia is the mining of coal which is found in Cape Breton Island.

Prince Edward Island

¹ In the Gulf of St. Lawrence just north of Nova Scotia lies Prince Edward Island which is the smallest and most densely populated Canadian province. ² It has a fertile soil that raises rich crops. ³ Potatoes are the chief export but other exports among which are beef oysters fruit butter and eggs are shipped to the Canadian mainland and to the United States.

New Brunswick

¹ New Brunswick is the province which joins Maine and is very much like Maine. ² The value of the fish which are packed in this province is very great. ³ The only sardine canneries in Canada are located here. ⁴ Other fish that are exported in large quantities are cod herring trout scallops lobsters and oysters. ⁵ The forests which cover millions of acres are new second growth. ⁶ The great white pines of New Brunswick have furnished masts and lumber for England's fleets. ⁷ Lumbering is the chief industry. ⁸ Coal is a valuable mineral product. ⁹ There are large deposits of other minerals that have barely been touched.

*PRACTICE B

(I)

To obtain practice in recognizing restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses, select from some book you are reading or have just read five sentences which give examples of each type of clause.

(2)

To have practice in writing restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses, write ten original sentences in each of which you use a restrictive clause and ten in each of which you use a nonrestrictive clause.

3. The dependent clause of a complex sentence may be an adverb clause.

Adverb clauses telling "where"

Study the following analysis and decide how the dependent clause is used.

SENTENCE: Wherever the sportsman finds a stream or a lake in Canada, he can expect an abundance of fish.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
<u>he</u> (Pro)	(D O) <u>can expect</u> (V) <u>abundance</u> (N) an (Adj) of (Prep) + fish (N)
	wherever (Conj) <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> (D O) <u>stream</u> (N) a (Adj) or (Conj) (D O) <u>lake</u> (N) a (Adj) in (Prep) + Canada (N) </div>
<u>sportsman</u> (N) the (Adj)	



Using subordinate conjunctions

The introductory word of the dependent clause is *wherever*. This sentence could, of course, have just as well been written with the dependent clause last: *The sportsman can expect an abundance of fish, wherever he finds a stream or a lake in Canada*. Since the word *wherever* joins the dependent clause to the independent clause, it is a conjunction. It cannot be a co-ordinate conjunction because it does not connect elements of equal value. Instead, it connects elements of unequal value. A dependent clause is less important than an independent clause. A dependent clause is of lower order. A dependent clause is subordinate to an independent clause. The conjunction that connects a dependent clause to an independent clause is therefore called a subordinate conjunction. *Wherever* is a subordinate conjunction.

Adverb clauses telling "when"

The following sentence also has a dependent adverb clause.

SENTENCE: Whenever he can get away, he will spend his time at some sport out-of-doors.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT

he (Pro)

he (Pro)

PREDICATE

will spend (V)

at (Prep) + sport (N)

some (Adj)

out-of-doors (Adv)

whenever (Conj)

can get (V)

away (Adv)

(D O)

time (N)

his (Pos Pro)




The dependent clause, *whenever he can get away*, is introduced by the subordinate conjunction *whenever*. The dependent clause is used as an adverb because it indicates *when* and modifies the verb *will spend*.

Again note that a dependent clause need not always be stated first. An adverb clause may be separated from the verb it modifies. Sentences 3 and 6 under "Lacrosse" in the following article, "Canadians Are Sportsmen," have dependent clauses at the end.

SENTENCE: The ball is tossed from player to player until one player can throw it into the opponents' goal net.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE	
<u>ball</u> (N)	<u>is tossed</u> (V)	
<u>the</u> (Adj)	<u>from</u> (Prep) + <u>player</u> (N)	
	<u>to</u> (Prep) + <u>player</u> (N)	
	<u>until</u> (Conj)	
<u>player</u> (N)	<u>can throw</u> (V)	(D O)
<u>one</u> (Adj)	<u>into</u> (Prep) + <u>goal net</u> (N)	<u>it</u> (Pro)
	<u>opponents'</u> (Pos N)	
	<u>the</u> (Adj)	

As a sample exercise, read the sentences in "Canadians Are Sportsmen" and pick out the adverb clauses.

CANADIANS ARE SPORTSMEN

Lacrosse

¹ Almost every Canadian loves sports. ² A game that is very popular in Canada is lacrosse. ³ When boys play this game, they need healthy bodies because it is a very strenuous game. ⁴ Two

teams of twelve men play with an India-rubber ball. ⁶ They carry a long hickory stick, which has a bag for the ball at the end. ⁶ The ball is tossed from player to player until one player can throw it into the opponents' goal net.

Ice Hockey

¹ In every province Canadians' favorite sport is ice hockey, a rigorous and scientific game that demands great speed. ² Whenever this game is played, the contestants must be expert ice skaters. ³ While the boys play this game, they skate at a rapid speed, dodge around other players, close in on their opponents, make sudden and unexpected stops, and then fly over the ice again as swiftly as ever.

Skiiing

¹ Canadians are great skiers. ² Wherever the snow falls deep enough, there you will find skiers. ³ If you are in Montréal on a Sunday in winter, you will see many people who leave on sunrise trains for mountain snowfields. ⁴ As you stand in the station, you will see skis everywhere. ⁵ While the snow lies deep on the hillsides, the Canadians on their holidays ski from morning till night.

Common subordinate conjunctions

Did you notice that several of the sentences have adverb clauses introduced by subordinate conjunctions? The most common subordinate conjunctions are *as, if, as if, even if, as soon as, as though, though, although, until, when, whenever, while, where, wherever, since, because, unless, provided*. These words are connecting words and, unlike relative pronouns, do not stand in place of nouns. An adverb clause states *how, when, where, why, or upon what condition*. Adverb clauses which tell upon what condition something is true are introduced by the connecting word *if*. *If* is one of the most common subordinate conjunctions. Notice the analysis of the sentence which follows.

SENTENCE: If a person would know Canada, he really should travel by canoe.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
<u>he</u> (Pro)	<u>should travel</u> (V) really (Adv) by (Prep) + canoe (N)
	if (Conj)
<u>person</u> (N) a (Adj)	<u>would know</u> (V) (D O) <u>Canada</u> (N)



The dependent clause, *if a person would know Canada*, is introduced by the subordinate conjunction *if*. The dependent clause is used as an adverb because it indicates *upon what condition* and modifies the verb *should travel*. Because an *if* clause tells *upon what condition* the statement in the main clause is true, *if* clauses are sometimes called *conditional clauses*.

Sentences with more than one dependent clause

Sentences may contain more than one adverb clause. Study, as an example, this sentence: *When boys play this game, they need healthy bodies because it is a very strenuous game.* The independent clause is *they need healthy bodies*. It gives the main idea of the sentence. One of the dependent ideas is *when boys play this game*. This word group is a dependent clause. The other dependent idea is *because it is a very strenuous game*. It also is a dependent clause. In one complex sentence you sometimes have more than one dependent clause.

Study the following analysis of a sentence containing two dependent clauses.

SENTENCE: Because ice hockey is a very rough game, boys should wear shin guards and pads when they play.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
<u>boys</u> (N)	(D O) <u>should wear</u> (V) <u>guards</u> (N) shin (Adj) and (Conj) (D O) <u>pads</u> (N)
<u>they</u> (Pro)	when (Conj) <u>play</u> (V) because (Conj)
<u>ice hockey</u> (N)	(Pred N) <u>is</u> (V) <u>game</u> (N) rough (Adj) very (Adv) a (Adj)



Two dependent clauses modify *should wear*; each of them is joined to the independent clause by a subordinate conjunction.

When you analyze a complex sentence, first find the independent clause. Then find the dependent clause or clauses. If a dependent clause is used like an adjective, in other words is an adjective clause, decide to what the relative pronoun relates or refers. Being a pronoun, it is always used in place of a noun. If the dependent clause is used like an adverb, in other words is an adverb clause, it will generally modify the verb of the independent clause, though it sometimes modifies an adjective or adverb in the independent clause.

Study a complex sentence that has both an adjective and an adverb clause. The relationship of words is shown in the analysis of sentence 3 under "Skiing" in the article "Canadians Are Sportsmen," page 156.

SENTENCE: If you are in Montreal on a Sunday in winter, you will see many people who leave on sunrise trains for mountain snowfields.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
<u>you</u> (Pro)	<u>will see</u> (V) ^(D O) <u>people</u> (N) many (Adj)
who (Rel Pro)	<u>leave</u> (V) on (Prep) + trains (N) sunrise (Adj) for (Prep) + snowfields (N) mountain (Adj)
	if (Conj)
<u>you</u> (Pro)	<u>are</u> (V) in (Prep) + Montreal (N) on (Prep) + Sunday (N) a (Adj) in (Prep) + winter (N)



Use the paragraphs in "Canadians Are Sportsmen" as a sample exercise. Can you analyze the sentences? Do you understand the relationship of words in these sentences? Be prepared to discuss the work with your teacher and classmates.

◆ REMEMBER THESE IMPORTANT FACTS:

1. Dependent clauses may be used as adjectives or adverbs.
2. *A relative pronoun introduces an adjective clause and joins it to the independent clause. The relative pronoun is used in place of a noun in the clause.*
3. A subordinate conjunction introduces an adverb clause and joins the dependent clause to the independent clause.

PRACTICE A

Most of the sentences in the following paragraph have adverb clauses. A few have adjective clauses. Very few are compound sentences or simple sentences with compound elements.

Analyze each sentence that contains an adverb clause. Make a list of the restrictive adjective clauses in the following article.

THE HUNTER'S PARADISE

¹ Although Canada is a wonderful place for hunters, the average resident of Canada sees very few wild animals that live in the forests.

² The greater percentage of Canada's 12,000,000 people live in the cities. ³ Unless the Canadian travels into the wilderness, he will never see the larger wild animals. ⁴ The forest regions are the home of the timber wolf. ⁵ Though the weird, bloodcurdling howl of this animal causes terror in the person who hears it for the first time, the wolf is not dangerous to man. ⁶ This fleet-footed animal hunts deer and other game, which it attacks for food. ⁷ The wolf multiplies rapidly and it kills much game, and each province pays a bounty for every pair of wolf's ears which are turned in by the hunter. ⁸ The prairie wolf, or coyote, is a shy animal. ⁹ He often lives near human habitation because he enjoys pigs, lambs, calves, and poultry for food. ¹⁰ Whenever they can, farmers shoot this unwelcome neighbor.

PRACTICE B

In order to have practice with complex sentences, find in some magazine good illustrations of adjective and adverb clauses. Copy each sentence, underline the dependent clause once, the word it modifies twice. Have a class discussion of your work. See whether your classmates agree with you.

4. All introductory adverb clauses are set off by commas. Non-restrictive adverb clauses, wherever placed, are also set off by commas.

Notice the punctuation of this sentence: *Originally, when Canada needed police on the western plains and foothills, the government formed the Northwest Mounted Police.* The dependent clause *when Canada needed police on the western plains* is set off from the rest of the sentence by commas. The reason for the punctuation is that the dependent clause is not absolutely necessary to the meaning. The idea of the sentence is understood in *Originally the government formed the Northwest Mounted Police.* Like a nonrestrictive adjective clause, this adverb clause simply adds a descriptive element to the sentence. It is therefore nonrestrictive and commas are used to show that fact.

In the illustration the nonrestrictive adverb clause comes within the independent clause. Often a nonrestrictive adverb clause is placed this way.

Notice the punctuation of this sentence: *If the Mountie is an officer, he may wear a plume in his helmet or hat.* A comma follows the introductory dependent clause. This rule should generally be followed. If the introductory clause is very brief, omit the comma. In such a brief sentence as *If he comes I shall be glad*, no comma is needed. Almost anyone could read that word group at a glance.

Notice the adverb clause in this sentence: *Canada owes much to these men, because they have created the rule of law and order.* The dependent clause *because they have created the rule of law and order* adds another idea to the sentence, an idea that is not absolutely necessary for the meaning. The clause is therefore nonrestrictive and is set off from the rest of the sentence. Since it stands at the end of the sentence, only one comma is needed.

Notice the sentence: *He was their friend whenever they needed help.* In this sentence the dependent clause *whenever they needed help* is essential to the meaning of the sentence. It is a restrictive adverb clause and is therefore not set off by a comma.

Use the following article as a sample exercise and account for all punctuation.

THE CANADIAN MOUNTIE

In Real Life

¹ "The mountie always gets his man." ² This statement,

which describes the glamorous Royal Canadian Mounted Police, is known everywhere. ³ Originally, when Canada needed police on the western plains and foothills, the government formed the Northwest Mounted Police. ⁴ The mounties' area, which in the beginning was the Northwest, has now become all Canada. ⁵ Wherever these men are needed, there they go. ⁶ The mountie, if the case demands it, goes over desolate country in blinding snowstorms in below-zero temperature. ⁷ Blizzards may rage and hurricanes may blow, but the mountie's work is always done.

Rule of Law and Order

¹ When the hardy mounties first entered the Northwest, they unknowingly opened the area for colonizers. ² Their patrol of those sections, which had formerly seemed uninhabitable, aroused the interest of many future inhabitants. ³ Canada owes much to these

men, because they have created the rule of law and order. ⁴ No job is too difficult or too dangerous for them. ⁵ When they bring in their man, even if he is a desperate criminal, he must be alive. ⁶ In a democracy the law protects every man until his guilt is proved. ⁷ To-day, whenever there is a crime of any kind in Canada, the mounties, men of dauntless courage and high character, are at work. ⁸ These men, who always get their man, help in the detection of crime, protect life, fight forest fires, and maintain order.

Do you know all the rules given in this lesson? Do you need to review previous lessons? Can you punctuate simple, compound, and complex sentences? Account for every punctuation mark in the sentences in the preceding article. Does the article have any restrictive clauses?

◆ REMEMBER:

1. An adverb clause is used as an adverb to tell "how," "when," "where," "why" or "in what manner."
2. A nonrestrictive adverb clause is set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.
3. An introductory adverb clause is set off by a comma unless it is very short.

PRACTICE A

The following article demands practically all the punctuation you have studied. Read the first paragraph carefully.

(1)

On paper list each word* that should be followed by a punctuation mark, insert the mark, and account for its use. Do the same with each paragraph in the article.

(2)

List all restrictive clauses and indicate whether each is adjective or adverb.

THE TRAINING OF A MOUNTIE

His Qualifications

¹ Many boys start their training early in youth for service in the Royal Canadian Mounted Police Force. ² The first examination which a man must pass determines his physical fitness. ³ No one is accepted whose examination shows any physical defects whatsoever. ⁴ An applicant who cannot think straight make up his mind quickly and act upon his decision does not have a chance. ⁵ Although high-school graduation formerly was not demanded at least that much education or its equivalent is now considered necessary.

Probationary Training

¹ After the fortunate man passes all tests he begins a probationary period of training. ² His day begins at 6:30 A.M. with strenuous physical exercises which the men call "physical jerks." ³ For at least three hours a day they have infantry drill until each man is an expert. ⁴ The texts are books which deal with police work firearms first aid and law. ⁵ Any information that a mountie might need is included in his education. ⁶ The men learn firing from the hip firing with the arm outstretched and firing from prone position because a man's life might depend upon this skill.

A Mountie's Later Training

¹ After the men have drilled for a month they are assigned horses. ² Then their true training as mounties begins. ³ Long hours of bareback riding teach correct position and a light touch on the horse's mouth. ⁴ When these points have been mastered regular saddle equipment is used. ⁵ Gradually the mountie learns the maneuvers which have made the men famous throughout the world. ⁶ Many men whose courage is not questioned do not complete the training. ⁷ If a man cannot measure up to standards he is quietly dismissed. ⁸ The man who successfully completes all training becomes a member of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police.

***PRACTICE B**

In order to have practice in writing the various kinds of sentences and elements you have studied in this book, form the following original sentences: (1) three simple sentences, each with a different kind of compound element; (2) three compound sentences, one with a co-ordinate conjunction, one without a conjunction, one with a conjunctive adverb; (3) six complex sentences, two with nonrestrictive adjective clauses, one with a restrictive adjective clause, one with an adverb clause standing first in the sentence, and two others with nonrestrictive adverb clauses.

5. The dependent clause of a complex sentence may be a noun clause.

Noun clauses as subjects

Clauses are sometimes used as nouns. Notice the underscored words in this sentence: *What most people know about this country is exceedingly limited. What most people know about this country is a clause, because it has a subject and a predicate: people know. But it is not the independent clause of the sentence because it depends upon the rest of the sentence for its meaning. The rest of the sentence is is exceedingly limited. What is exceedingly limited? The answer is What most people know about this country. In other words, the dependent clause is the subject of the verb is. The dependent clause is therefore a noun clause.*

Notice this sentence: *What I like about Canada is its wide open spaces.* Here again the subject of the verb *is* is the clause *What I like about Canada*. A clause, you realize now, may be used like a noun as the subject of a sentence.

Notice the relationship of words in the following sentence.

SENTENCE: What most people know about this country is exceedingly limited.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT		PREDICATE
(Noun clause)	<u>is</u> (V)	(Pred Adj) <u>limited</u> (Adj) <u>exceedingly</u> (Adv)
<u>people</u> (N) <u>most</u> (Adj)	<u>know</u> (V)	(D O) <u>what</u> (Rel Pro) <u>about</u> (Prep) + <u>country</u> (N) <u>this</u> (Adj)



The dependent noun clause is the subject of the sentence. This fact is shown in the analysis. The subject, predicate, and direct object of the dependent clause are *people know what*. *What* is a relative pronoun that introduces the dependent clause. Notice that there is no word to which it relates. The relative pronoun that introduces a noun clause generally has no antecedent. *What* and *whatever* never have expressed antecedents.

Noun clauses as direct objects

Notice the graphic analysis of a sentence with a dependent noun clause.

Just as a noun clause may be used as the subject of a verb, so a noun clause may be the complement of a verb. A noun clause may complete an action verb and be a direct object, or it may complete a verb of being and so be used as a predicate noun. A noun clause may be even an apposition. Notice this sentence which contains an appositive noun clause and a predicate noun clause: *Your opinion, whatever it may be, is what I must know.*

SENTENCE: Anyone would imagine that it is a cold, bleak land.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
<u>anyone</u> (Pro)	<u>would imagine</u> (V) (D O)
	<u>that</u> (Conj) (Noun clause)
<u>it</u> (Pro)	<u>is</u> (V) (Pred N)
	<u>land</u> (N)
	<u>bleak</u> (Adj)
	<u>cold</u> (Adj)
	<u>a</u> (Adj)



In this sentence the dependent clause is the direct object of *would imagine*. It is therefore a noun clause. Notice the conjunction *that*. It introduces the dependent noun clause, but it is not a relative pronoun. It is a subordinate conjunction, whose function is to join the dependent and the independent clauses.

Noun clauses as objects of prepositions

Another use of the noun clause is shown in the following sentence and analysis:

SENTENCE: The Indians surely are grateful for whatever the government does.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
<u>Indians</u> (N)	<u>are</u> (V) (Pred Adj)
<u>the</u> (Adj)	<u>grateful</u> (Adj)
	<u>surely</u> (Adv)
	<u>for</u> (Prep) + (Noun Clause)
	(D O)
<u>government</u> (N)	<u>does</u> (V)
<u>the</u> (Adj)	<u>whatever</u> (Rel Pro)



These examples illustrate the most common uses of noun clauses. A noun clause may be used as the subject of a verb, as a noun in apposition, as the complement of a verb, or as the object of a preposition. Noun clauses are not used nearly so frequently as adjective or adverb clauses. If you are to acquire a thorough understanding of the relationship of words in sentences, you must give considerable study to noun clauses and know how they are formed and how they are used.

Use the following paragraph as a simple exercise. Pick out the noun clauses. How many does the entire article contain?

IN THE NORTHLAND

¹ A vast territory in Canada is the Northland, which lies north of the forest belt from the Atlantic to the Pacific. ² Baffin Island, which is on a line with Alaska, is a part of the Northland. ³ What most people know about this country is exceedingly limited. ⁴ Anyone would imagine that it is a cold, bleak land. ⁵ Whatever animals are native to cold temperatures abound here. ⁶ Caribou and grizzlies roam the land; whales live in the ocean; seals lie on the shores of ocean and bay; beautiful arctic white owls fly over sea and land. ⁷ Do not think that these are the only animals on Baffin Land.

Did you find four noun clauses? That is the correct number.

Before you do the Practices that are suggested, take time to do a sample exercise. Select from "In the Northland" all the sentences that contain noun clauses and analyze them. In the fifth sentence notice that *whatever* is used as an adjective modifying *animals*, but it still possesses its relative nature.

◆ REMEMBER:

1. A noun clause is used like a noun, as the subject of a sentence, the complement of a verb, or the object of a preposition.
2. The relative pronoun that introduces a noun clause has no stated antecedent.

PRACTICE A

The article "North to the Arctic" contains the three kinds of sentences and the three kinds of clauses.

(1)

Analyze each sentence so that you show the relationship of words.

(2)

List the words followed by commas and indicate the reason for each comma.

NORTH TO THE ARCTIC

¹The airplane is the accepted means of travel in the Northwest Territories today. ²That cities beyond the Arctic Circle receive weekly mail service by plane is a little-known fact. ³However, the residents of Aklavik and Herschel Island at the mouth of the Mackenzie River are so favored. ⁴Trappers, also, are patrons of the air passenger and freight service. ⁵Two partners, who operate a line of traps inside the Arctic Circle, go in and out by plane. ⁶One man stays with the traps, while the other flies out with a valuable load of pelts. ⁷That their income is a splendid one is possible because they can use air freight service. ⁸The northwest section of Canada is a vast, rich, undeveloped country. ⁹No one can foresee what its future will be. ¹⁰That the airplane will be the means of its development, however, is certain.

PRACTICE B

(1)

In order to use different kinds of clauses in your own sentences, add to an original independent clause one of these dependent clauses:

1. who just has arrived in Canada
2. who knows the language of the Indians
3. when three strangers approached the trading post
4. whatever you may think about killing animals
5. which is a good inland water route
6. while patrols cover the entire area
7. that carry trappers, traders, and travelers
8. which has a wireless station farthest north
9. that he would someday visit the Yukon
10. while the mountie was bringing other aid

* (2)

Notice the use of *that* in this sentence: *The reason he went there was that he was interested in the place.* The clause *the reason was* is always followed by a clause introduced by *that* and not *because*. Use *because* in a sentence like this: *I am going because I want to.* Complete each of the following clauses correctly with either a *that* or a *because* clause.

1. The reason I had for going to Quebec
2. I don't know why
3. I shall go
4. I want to see a Canadian mountie
5. The reason why I took my fishing outfit

6. Complex sentences sometimes contain parenthetical clauses.

Read the following sentence and find a clause that is not used as adjective, adverb, or noun: *The choice of that city, it is said, was made by Queen Victoria.* The clause is *it is said*. It could be omitted entirely from the sentence, and the idea would still be perfectly clear: *The choice of that city was made by Queen Victoria.* From what you have learned, you can understand that such a clause is a parenthetical clause.

A parenthetical clause is neither a part of the sentence, as a

noun clause is, nor is it a modifier. It has no relationship to any words in the sentence. A parenthetical clause is put into the sentence simply to give incidental or by-the-way information. Notice how the analysis shows that the parenthetical clause has no relationship to the rest of the sentence.

SENTENCE: The choice of that city, it is said, was made by Queen Victoria.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
<u>choice</u> (N)	<u>was made</u> (V)
the (Adj)	by (Prep) + Queen
of (Prep) + city (N)	Victoria (N)
that (Adj)	
(it (Pro)	is said (V))

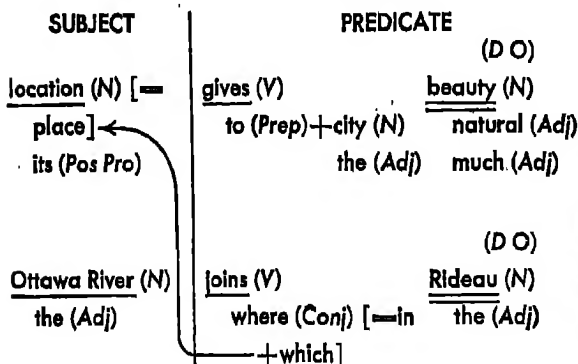


A parenthetical clause is generally set off from the rest of the sentence by commas. In the analysis parentheses are used.

Sometimes a sentence has an adjective clause that may seem at first glance to be an adverb clause. For example, notice this sentence: *Its location, where the Ottawa River joins the Rideau, gives the city much natural beauty.* The dependent clause, *where the Ottawa River joins the Rideau*, is introduced by the subordinate conjunction *where*, and yet it is an adjective clause because it modifies the noun *location*. See how the analysis shows the relationship of words.

SENTENCE: Its location, where the Ottawa River joins the Rideau, gives the city much natural beauty.

ANALYSIS



The idea of the clause is this: Its location, *the place in which* the Ottawa River joins the Rideau. When worded in this way, the clause is adjective. *Where* is often used to mean the *place in which*. A similar sentence is this: *The days when I was in Ottawa were gay ones for me*. Study the relationship of words in the sentences you analyze. If a clause modifies a noun, it is an adjective clause.

As a sample exercise, study the sentences in "Canada's Capital" on page 173.

(1)

Analyze graphically three sentences from "Canada's Capital" which contain parenthetical clauses and three sentences which contain adjective clauses.

(2)

Indicate the reason for each punctuation mark in "Canada's Capital." Use the blackboard and have a discussion of every point not perfectly clear. Your teacher and classmates will help you to gain mastery of this work.

CANADA'S CAPITAL

¹ Canada's capital, as you know, is the beautiful city of Ottawa. ² The choice of that city, it is said, was made by Queen Victoria. ³ The central part of Ottawa is Parliament Hill, where the magnificent government buildings stand. ⁴ Their architecture, which is Gothic, gives the buildings stately arches, massive buttresses, and lofty spires. ⁵ In the center of the main group of buildings is the Peace Tower, which overlooks the city of Ottawa and all the surrounding country. ⁶ In the tower is a set of fifty-three bells, which play at regular intervals pleasant melodies familiar to all Canadians. ⁷ At the base of the Peace Tower is the Memorial Chamber, which is an impressive tribute from the nation to its war dead.

⁸ The Library Building is another architecturally perfect building on Parliament Hill. ⁹ It is regarded with added affection by the Canadians because, we are told, it was the only parliament building that was not burned in the fire of 1916. ¹⁰ Close to the parliament buildings is Château Laurier, Ottawa's leading hotel. ¹¹ Like a massive Gothic castle of early times with steel-gray turrets and moats, the château adds to the dignity and stateliness of Parliament Hill. ¹² Beautiful green terraces set this part of Ottawa apart from the busy city, where its citizens work and play and live.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. A parenthetical clause is a clause that has no relationship to any word in the sentence. It is put into the sentence merely to give incidental or by-the-way information.
2. Commas set off parenthetical clauses from the rest of the sentence.
3. An adjective clause is sometimes introduced by a subordinate conjunction.

PRACTICE A

The sentences in the following article, "Montreal," contain most of the punctuation and the grammatical elements that you have studied in this book.

(1)

Show the relationship of the words in the sentences by means of graphic analyses.

(2)

Indicate the reason for each mark of punctuation.

MONTREAL

¹ Many nations are known to the world by their cities. ² London means and typifies England; Paris has always been the heart of France; Buenos Aires is the pride of all Argentina. ³ In Canada the metropolis, Montreal, inspires the affection and pride of all inhabitants. ⁴ The city is the nation's chief ocean port, even though it is a thousand miles from the Gulf of St. Lawrence. ⁵ Docks that can berth transatlantic steamships line the riverbanks. ⁶ Montreal is, you may not know, one of the largest French cities in the world. ⁷ A large part of the population is French and uses the French language. ⁸ English is the language that is used for official business; however, street signs are given in both English and French. ⁹ How does this happen, you wonder. ¹⁰ When the English conquered the French in Canada, the French people kept their language and customs by permission of the English. ¹¹ Montreal is a city of many public buildings, cathedrals, shrines, and historic places.

*PRACTICE B

To make sure that you can recognize the sentence elements you have been studying, find illustrations of these from something you are reading: (1) an adjective clause, (2) a noun clause, (3) an adverb clause, (4) a restrictive adjective or adverb clause, (5) a nonrestrictive adjective or adverb clause within the independent clause, (6) an introductory adverb clause, (7) a parenthetical clause at the end of the sentence, (8) a nonrestrictive clause at the end of the sentence.

7. A sentence may be both compound and complex. A compound-complex sentence consists of at least two independent clauses and one dependent clause.

Notice the following sentence and its analysis.

SENTENCE: This city is first in manufacturing in Canada; and, because it has an excellent location, it is also the distributing center that supplies a large section of Ontario.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT		PREDICATE
<u>city</u> (N)	<u>is</u> (V)	(Pred Adj) <u>first</u> (Adj) in (Prep) + manufacturing (N) in (Prep) + Canada (N)
this (Adj)		
	and (Conj)	
<u>it</u> (Pro)	<u>is</u> (V)	(Pred N) <u>center</u> (N) distributing (Adj) the (Adj) (D O)
	also (Adv)	
<u>that</u> (Rel Pro)	<u>supplies</u> (V)	<u>section</u> (N) of (Prep) + Ontario (N) large (Adj) a (Adj)
	because (Conj)	
<u>it</u> (Pro)	<u>has</u> (V)	(D O) <u>location</u> (N) excellent (Adj) an (Adj)



A careful study of the analysis shows that the sentence has two independent clauses connected by the co-ordinate conjunction *and*. One of the dependent clauses is adverb, introduced by the subordinate conjunction *because*, and the other dependent clause is adjective, introduced by the relative pronoun *that*. Such sentences are, to be sure, involved sentences, but you can analyze them if you will separate each clause from the rest of the sentence and work out the relationship of words graphically. Like the blueprint of an airplane designer, the analysis shows at a glance the relationship of one part or element to another. It is a helpful device to use, especially with sentences that have many elements.

◆ REMEMBER:

A compound-complex sentence consists of at least two independent clauses and one dependent clause.

PRACTICE A

The different sentences in the following article are simple, compound, or compound-complex. Locate each compound-complex sentence and analyze it graphically. Make a graphic analysis, also, of one compound sentence and one simple sentence chosen from the following article.

OTHER CANADIAN CITIES

Toronto

¹ Beautiful Toronto, the second largest city of Canada, is situated on Lake Ontario in the southern part of the province of Ontario. ² It is largely English, and, it is said, is like the American cities across the border. ³ Here are the Ontario Parliament buildings, the Royal Ontario Museum, and many beautiful churches. ⁴ This city is first in manufacturing in Canada; and because it has an excellent location, it is also the distributing center that supplies a large section of Ontario Province. ⁵ The great mining industry of Ontario has likewise contributed to the growth of Toronto.

Vancouver

¹ In the West, Vancouver is a thriving western seaport. ² It has a splendid harbor; and it also has a very scenic location, for behind the city tower the coastal mountains, which are snowcapped for many months of the year. ³ This port is Canada's gateway to the Orient; moreover, from it supplies go to the Yukon and to all of British Columbia. ⁴ Stanley Park, one of the city's beauty spots, is famous for its very tall Douglas fir trees.

Victoria

¹ Victoria, British Columbia's capital, is located on Vancouver Island. ² This city has the mildest climate of all Canadian cities; and, since it is so mild, flowers bloom there throughout the year. ³ The atmosphere of this city, its customs, and many of its people are English.

The Nation's Pride

¹ Yes, the people of Canada, wherever they live, may feel very proud of their many beautiful and busy cities. ² Each represents and serves an important section of this great Dominion, our closest neighbor.

*** PRACTICE B ***

Write one or two original compound-complex sentences and analyze them graphically. If you come across a compound-complex sentence in any of your reading, you may wish to analyze it graphically and bring it to the class as an example of this type of sentence.

8. Review of Complex Sentences.

Read the following article, paying attention to the formation of the sentences and to the punctuation.

THE WORLD'S MOST REMARKABLE BOUNDARY LINE

No Fortifications Between Canada and the United States

¹ Canada is our neighbor.
² For three thousand miles
our boundaries go side by
side without a fort or a cannon. ³ Not once in all those miles is there
a sign of suspicion or strife between the United States and Canada.

Reasons for Their Friendliness

¹ What are the reasons for
this remarkable friendliness?
² Probably the main reason is that, fortunately, we speak the same
language. ³ Unless people can speak together freely and easily, with-
out hindrance, they cannot possibly understand one another fully.
⁴ Another reason for the friendliness is, without a doubt, our com-
mon background with similar customs. ⁵ The early training in gov-
ernment our mother country gave us was the same, and our belief in
freedom of religion has always been the same. ⁶ Both countries be-
lieve in democracy, which means that every citizen can have certain
freedoms.

A Noble Pledge

¹ Still another reason for the
peaceful relations between
the United States and Canada is lack of rivalry and jealousy. ² Greed
does not influence the behavior of either country; peace can natu-
rally thrive where men have a helpful attitude toward their neigh-
bors. ³ In the International Peace Garden, which was created by men
and women of both countries, you will find this pledge: "As long as
men shall live, we will not take up arms against one another."

For the most part, the punctuation of these sentences is fa-
miliar to you because you have spent considerable time in the
study of sentences. One or two items need to be emphasized.
Notice this sentence: *The main reason is that, fortunately, we
speak the same language.* *Fortunately* is an adverb that modifies

speaks. Why do commas set it off from the rest of the sentence? The reason is that *fortunately* is used as a nonrestrictive element and demands commas. Whenever a word or a word group is used in a nonrestrictive way, it must be set off from the rest of the sentence by commas. Single words, phrases, or clauses may be nonrestrictive.

Sometimes the relative pronoun is omitted. Notice the following analysis.

SENTENCE: The early training in government our mother country gave us was the same.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
	(Pred Pro)
<u>training</u> (N)	<u>was</u> (V)
early (Adj)	<u>same</u> (Pro)
the (Adj)	the (Adj)
in (Prep)	
+government (N)	(D O)
	<u>[which (Rel Pro)]</u>
<u>country</u> (N)	<u>gave</u> (V)
mother (Adj)	[to] (Prep)
our (Pos Pro)	+us (Pro)



The dependent clause is: *which our mother country gave us*. The introductory relative pronoun *which* is omitted. In analyzing the sentence, you must state the pronoun, since it is the object complement.

Use the paragraphs in "The World's Most Remarkable Boundary Line" as material for sample review work. Show the relationship of words in each sentence by graphic analysis. Also state the reason for each punctuation mark.

◆ REMEMBER:

1. *A complex sentence contains at least one dependent and one independent clause.*
2. *Dependent clauses are used as adjectives, adverbs, or nouns.*
3. *The introductory word of an adjective clause is generally a relative pronoun and sometimes a subordinate conjunction; the introductory word of an adverb clause is a subordinate conjunction.*
4. *Nonrestrictive clauses are set off by commas.*
5. *An introductory adverb clause is generally followed by a comma.*
6. *Parenthetical clauses are set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.*

PRACTICE A

(1)

Read the following article, "Similarities Between Canada and the United States." Analyze the sentences in the first part of the article, "Common Beginnings," by showing the relationship of words graphically.

(2)

On paper indicate the reason for each comma used in the first part of the article, "Common Beginnings," and show the correct punctuation of the second part, "Geographic Similarities from Coast to Coast," by listing every word that should be followed by punctuation. Insert the proper mark and account for its use.

SIMILARITIES BETWEEN CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES

Common Beginnings

¹ The two countries, Canada and the United States, have had much in common in the past. ² Many people believe that in the future the two countries will have many similar interests and experi-

ences. ²The beginnings of the two countries were the same; both were explored on the Atlantic coast at about the same time. ⁴The explorers were from European countries, England and France. ¹These nations later sent settlers and established colonies, which gave the customs and culture of their European background to the new world. ⁶Very early in their history the peoples of both countries had the same ideals. ⁷The people in each land wanted religious freedom, a democratic form of government, and an educational system that would include all.

*Geographic Similarities from
Coast to Coast*

¹Geographically Canada and the United States are very much alike. ²For instance the Maritime Provinces are similar to our New England States. ³The great Mississippi Valley is a continuation of the plain that forms Ontario and the American prairie states. ⁴The Great Lakes belong to both nations. ⁵The Rocky Mountain range which extends the length of the United States follows the same general course in Canada. ⁶The land that lies on the western slope of these mountains is the same kind of country in both Washington and British Columbia. ⁷Alaska and the Northwest Territories are a part of the great Northland.

***PRACTICE B**

(1)

Write the following: (1) a simple sentence with a compound subject or predicate, (2) a simple sentence with a compound object of a preposition, (3) a simple sentence with a compound subject complement, (4) a compound sentence, (5) a complex sentence with a nonrestrictive adjective clause, (6) a simple sentence with a parenthetical clause, (7) a complex sentence with an introductory adverb clause, (8) a complex sentence with a restrictive adjective clause, (9) a complex sentence with a noun clause, (10) a complex sentence with the pronoun omitted.

(2)

Notice the punctuation of this sentence: *Whenever I want a good trip, I think of all that Canada has to offer: there are the mountain streams abounding with fish — a paradise for the angler; the great vistas of snow-covered peaks reflected in placid mountain lakes; and quaint French cities with their many fascinating shops and shopkeepers.* This is a compound-complex sentence with a series of subjects. It contains a formal listing which demands the colon. Furthermore, the terms in the series are long and one has a dash. Because the sentence is long and the series is involved, semicolons instead of commas are used to separate the terms of the series.

You will not often write such a sentence. Sometimes, however, the thought you wish to convey may need an involved sentence and involved punctuation.

In a book or a magazine find six illustrations of such involved punctuation. Try to account for each punctuation mark. Discuss the sentences with your teacher and classmates.

(3)

In your composition work you may sometime want to write conversation. The punctuation of conversation has certain definite rules. Read the following and notice how it is punctuated.

"Mother, do you think we can ever go to Canada again?" This question came from young John Warden, who had enjoyed his last summer's trip to Quebec.

"I don't know, John," answered his mother. "Some day soon, I hope. Why do you ask?"

"Oh, I was just wishing I could get in the car and say, 'I'm ready, Dad. Let's go.'"

"Well," exclaimed Mrs. Warden, "it can't be too soon for me!"

When words spoken directly by someone are quoted, they are enclosed by quotation marks. Sometimes a quotation may

consist of several sentences, by the same speaker. Quotation marks precede and follow all material that is directly quoted, whether it consists of one word or a dozen sentences. In the second paragraph in the above illustration, the mother's conversation is in three sentences. Notice how punctuation marks are used before and after her words. Whenever other words, as *she answered*, are inserted, quotation marks and commas set off the quoted material from these parenthetical words.

In the third paragraph there is a quotation within a quotation. Notice that single quotation marks set off the quotation within the quotation. At the end of the paragraph are two sets of quotation marks, the single to show the end of the quotation within a quotation and the double to show the end of the main quotation.

In the last paragraph is a broken quotation. The words that Mrs. Warden gives are broken by *exclaimed Mrs. Warden*. Notice that commas set off this expression and that quotation marks are used to indicate the exact words quoted. A small letter is used with *it* because that word is not the beginning of a sentence in Mrs. Warden's conversation.

Generally all dialogue spoken by different people is written in different paragraphs. In the first paragraph his mother speaks, and in the third John speaks again.

Follow these rules whenever you write conversation.

For another example of the punctuation of conversation, copy a brief conversation from a book or magazine you are reading. Try to have an example of all items pointed out in the lesson.

Write an original conversation in which the items stressed in the lesson are given.

Books About Canada

These books will tell you more about our neighbor to the north.

Canada, by J. Herbert Cranston. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1935

Canada and Her Story, by Mary Graham Bonner. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1942

Canada in Story and Pictures, Story by Marguerite Henry; pictures by Kurt Wiese. Albert Whitman and Company, Chicago, 1941

Canadian Ways, by Leila Gott Harris and W. Kilroy Harris. McKnight & McKnight, Bloomington, Illinois, 1939

Crossing Canada, by Lilian Holmes Strack. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1940

David Goes to Baffin Land, by David Binney Putnam. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1927

Here's to Canada! by Dorothy Duncan. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1941

Seeing Canada, by John T. Faris. J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1924

The Canadian Peoples, by Bernard K. Sandwell. Oxford University Press, New York, 1941

UNIT EIGHT

The Spelling of Plural and Possessive Nouns

In your writing do you ever use the plural and the possessive forms of nouns? Of course you do. The purpose of this unit is to give you all the information you need about those forms and some practice in writing them.

1. The plural forms of most nouns are made by adding "s" or "es" to the singular form.

You know that the singular form of a noun indicates one and the plural form means more than one. These two forms indicate number. Every noun has number.

Read the following article and make three lists of the italicized words: (1) of all nouns whose singular form ends in *y*; (2) of all nouns whose plural form shows a change within the word itself; (3) of all nouns which form the plural by adding *s* or *es*.

MUSIC FOR EVERYONE

¹ What *kind* of music do you enjoy? ² Are you one of the modern young *men* or *women* who want swing music only? ³ Or do you, at *times*, enjoy classical music played by a *symphony orchestra*? ⁴ These *days* anyone who has a *radio* has an *opportunity* to hear any kind of music he wishes. ⁵ Young people who live in cities often have opportunities to dance to the music of a famous name *band*, which plays for a while at some *hotel* or *restaurant*. ⁶ Almost every large *city* has a symphony orchestra, which often plays the music of modern *composers* as well as the *works* of the older *masters*. ⁷ Everyone can have his *choice* of music.

In the article you just read there are nouns whose plural forms are made in different ways. First there are the nouns you have listed that simply add *s* to the singular form, as *orchestras*, *days*, *radios*, *composers*. But many nouns that end in a consonant add *es* to form the plural. Their plurals have an extra syllable. These forms are illustrations of this rule: *class*, *classes*; *bass*, *basses*; *church*, *churches*; *box*, *boxes*; *glass*, *glasses*.

Nouns ending in "o"

Some nouns ending in *o* add *s* to form the plural, and others add *es*; for example:

(1)

SINGULAR	PLURAL
banjo	banjos
piano	pianos
solo	solos
soprano	sopranos
alto	altos

(2)

tomato	tomatoes
tornado	tornadoes
potato	potatoes
echo	echoes
hero	heroes
volcano	volcanoes

What rule can you follow in spelling such words? There is no rule. You will simply have to master the spelling of these words. This fact is true: you can master spelling if you are willing to spend the necessary time and mental effort.

Nouns ending in "f"

Another group of nouns ends in *f*, as *half*. Some of them form the plural by changing *f* to *v* and adding *es*. The plural of *half* is *halves*. Other illustrations are *leaf*, *leaves*; *thief*, *thieves*; *self*, *selves*; *knife*, *knives*; *wolf*, *wolves*; *loaf*, *loaves*. Other words

ending in *f* simply add *s* for the plural form, as *chiefs*; *griefs*, *beliefs*. Here again you must master the spelling of the forms, since there are no rules to guide you.

Nouns ending in "y"

A great many nouns end in *y*. You have listed some of these nouns that are used in the article, "Music for Everyone." Forming the plural of nouns ending in *y* demands the use of a very important rule. Notice the singular and the plural forms in this list:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
symphony	symphonies
opportunity	opportunities
city	cities
lady	ladies
nationality	nationalities
ability	abilities
duty	duties
melody	melodies
beauty	beauties
lily	lilies
library	libraries
berry	berries

The plural form of each of these words ends in *ies*. What do they have in common? Look at the singular form. The letter *y* in every noun is preceded by a consonant. That is the secret of the spelling of the plural form. Whenever a noun ends in *y* preceded by a consonant, change *y* to *i* and add *es*.

Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel simply add *s*, as *way*, *ways*; *key*, *keys*; *valley*, *valleys*.

Nouns which change their form

A few nouns in our language make their plural forms by a change within the word itself. Common examples are *man*, *men*; *woman*, *women*. Other nouns are *child*, *children*; *goose*, *geese*; *foot*, *feet*; *mouse*, *mice*; *ox*, *oxen*.

Mastering spelling

Good writing demands perfect spelling. Do you know how to master spelling? Take the following necessary steps whenever you want to learn to spell a word:

1. Look at the correct form of the word.
2. Pronounce the vowels and consonants correctly. See whether there is any one letter or any one syllable that may cause you difficulty. Notice how that part of the word is spelled.
3. Decide whether the word is spelled according to a rule you know. If it is, apply the rule to the spelling of the word.
4. Write the word.
5. Then compare your written word with the correct form to see whether you spelled it correctly. If you made an error, decide what your difficulty is. Then cover your word and write it again. Compare your second writing with the original. Write the word in this way until you have written it correctly five times.

You will then be able to write the word correctly at all times, provided, of course, you are careful and thoughtful in your writing. Do not resort to writing a word ten times as a means of learning how to spell. It is the worst method you can possibly use. Spelling orally is an almost useless method. It is like reading about shifting gears when you are learning to drive a car, instead of actually practicing shifting gears.

Before you work the practices, master the spelling of the words listed previously in this lesson.

◆ **REMEMBER THESE FACTS ABOUT SPELLING:**

1. Most nouns make their plural forms by adding "s" or "es."
2. Some nouns ending in "f" make their plural forms by changing "f" to "v" and adding "es."
3. Nouns ending in "y" preceded by a consonant change "y" to "i" and add "es."
4. Some nouns change their form to make the plural.

PRACTICE A

Notice the italicized words in the following article. Make a list of both the singular and the plural forms of those nouns. Learn to spell them.

WHAT INSTRUMENTS MAKE
A SWING BAND?

¹ Do you know what *instruments* are used in a swing band or orchestra? ² Can you identify the instrument that plays the solo *passage*? ³ Do you know what *ability* and *skill* a *musician* must have to play in an orchestra? ⁴ The *leader* of a swing band first selects *players* for the rhythm instruments. ⁵ These instruments are the *piano*, *drums*, string *bass* and guitar. ⁶ The *duty* of all the musicians who play these various instruments is to furnish a regular and strong rhythm. ⁷ The other instruments furnish the *melody*. ⁸ Three *saxophones* would probably be added next. ⁹ Do you know how the saxophone differs from all other instruments? ¹⁰ It is really an *orphan* instrument but is related to two *families* of instruments, the woodwinds and the brasses. ¹¹ A "sweet" band sometimes has two *altos* and two tenors in the saxophone group. ¹² If any *man* or *woman* who plays the saxophone is also able to play the clarinet, this ability is used at times. ¹³ The *clarinet* is an instrument which has a range of nearly four *octaves* and great *beauty* of tone. ¹⁴ All kinds of music, from slow, romantic, and tender melodies to dashing, rapid, and brilliant jazz *effects*, use the clarinet for solos. ¹⁵ The *trumpet* is a very necessary instrument in any jazz or swing band. ¹⁶ Four or five sometimes find *places* in a swing orchestra. ¹⁷ Someone has said, "Even the lowest in the *classes* can guess why they call *brasses*, Brasses." ¹⁸ The trumpet is the soprano instrument of the brass section. ¹⁹ Three or four trombones are the other instruments in a swing band. ²⁰ These instruments are also *members* of the brass-wind family. ²¹ Those bands which play "sweet" swing and semiclassical music often include *violins*. ²² The violins are the *sopranos* of the string section. ²³ The music of the first violins is like the *voices* of *children*. ²⁴ It may remind you of a famous *boy* choir with *purity* of tone.

PRACTICE B

In order to give your classmates practice in writing the plural forms discussed in this lesson, make an original paragraph containing as many of the plural forms as possible. Use your paragraph as a dictation exercise for the class. Have all other words in the paragraph as simple as possible. How many pupils are able to write the exercise perfectly?

2. The possessive forms of nouns require the apostrophe.

Of course you understand the meaning of the apostrophe (') in this sentence: *Man's love of music has existed for thousands of years.* The apostrophe shows possession, that the *love* belongs to *man*.

Do you show possession properly in all your writing? In other words, do you use the apostrophe correctly to show singular and plural possession?

Read the following article. As a sample exercise, make a list of all possessive words in it.

*THEY SAID IT IN MUSIC**Everyone Likes Music*

¹Almost everyone likes a tuneful song. ²Soldiers' feet move readily to a rousing patriotic tune. ³Man's love of music has existed for thousands of years. ⁴Even before he had a spoken language, man's most common tendency was toward self-expression. ⁵Whatever was the savage's desire, that he expressed in grunts and yells, his wild and uncouth music.

The Songs of the American Indians

¹The American Indian's songs were made for everything in his life. ²No Indian boy's education was complete without a thorough training in his tribe's songs. ³The Indian boys' mothers and grandfathers taught

them the songs. ⁴When the boys became old, they in turn taught their sons' sons, their children's children. ⁵Song was the vehicle in which stories were carried from generation to generation.

Europe's Songs

¹In ancient Greece every day's work had its song.

²Heroes' deeds were sung by the bard in the nobles' courts. ³Later, Britain's minstrels sang of the deeds of her heroic men, as did the Norseland's skalds, Germany's meistersingers, and the troubadours of France. ⁴Russia's workmen on the Volga River made a song to lessen their drudgery. ⁵The Finns' songs are often in praise of their land. ⁶Poland's music was in honor of her dauntless people. ⁷Iceland's men told of their heroes' deeds in song.

America's Songs

¹Less than two hundred years ago the Negroes were

brought to our country with Africa's native music in their ears. ²They made a song for every occasion, for their worship, for their work and play. ³The cowboy's life on the range has been another source of American songs; the mountaineer's exploits in his daily life have created other songs. ⁴The lumberjack's songs have increased the list. ⁵The sailor's chanty has added still more. ⁶Who are the authors of all these songs? ⁷No one knows. ⁸The people created them. ⁹That is why this music is called folk music. ¹⁰Musicians have recorded thousands of these songs, and all of us may become acquainted with the folk music of our land and of the world.

Possessive forms of nouns and pronouns

The singular and the plural possessive forms of nouns are written in different ways. Whenever you wish to show the singular possession, you add an apostrophe and *s* to the singular form. Some examples from "They Said It in Music" are *savage's desire*, *Indian's songs*, *tribe's songs*, *boy's education*. In each of these forms, the noun that shows possession is singular. It is *the desire of one savage*, *the songs of one Indian*, *the songs of one tribe*, *the education of one boy*.

To show plural possession, add only an apostrophe if the plural form ends in *s*. Some examples are these: *soldiers' feet*, *boys' mothers*, *sons' sons*. In each the plural form is given, and then the apostrophe is added. The meaning is *the feet of more than one soldier*, *the mothers of more than one boy*, *the sons of more than one son*. You must place the apostrophe correctly to make your thought perfectly clear.

When the plural form of a noun does not end in *s*, add an apostrophe and *s* to the plural form. For example, the plural of *woman* is *women*. It does not end in *s*. To form the plural possessive, you write *women's*.

The possessive form of a pronoun does not have an apostrophe. *His*, *hers*, *theirs*, *yours*, *ours*, and *its* are possessive pronouns. Do not confuse the possessive pronoun *its* with the contraction *it's* which means *it is*.

Mastering possessives

Mastery of the writing of possessives demands concentration on your part. Study each word which is to show possession and form it correctly.

Before you do the next work, take the list of possessives you found in "They Said It in Music" and state whether the word group is singular or plural possessive.

◆ REMEMBER:

1. Singular possession is shown by adding an apostrophe and "s" to the singular form.
2. Plural possession is shown by adding only an apostrophe when the plural form ends in "s."
3. When the plural form does not end in "s," add an apostrophe and "s."

PRACTICE A

The following article contains unpunctuated possessive nouns. On a sheet of paper make a list of the possessive nouns in each sentence and insert the apostrophe correctly.

AMERICA'S CONTRIBUTION

It Came from Africa

¹ Have you ever wondered where jazz or swing music came from? ² Do you know the early composers names? ³ Perhaps you have heard that jazz is Americas contribution to music. ⁴ The Negroes brought it to this countrys shores. ⁵ Africas native music was a part of their daily lives. ⁶ These people had danced their tom-tom dances and had celebrated their rituals to drums. ⁷ The musics strong, irregular rhythm was its characteristic feature.

Negro Rhythm Became Jazz

¹ As the Negroes worked they sang. ² In Louisianas long fields of sugar cane, rows and rows of workers sang as they rhythmically cut the cane. ³ Georgias fields of cotton were harvested to simple, rhythmic songs about the days work. ⁴ The sweating stevedores backs bent in rhythm as they swung the heavy cotton bales and sang to lighten their burdens. ⁵ The chain gangs efforts were eased by their songs. ⁶ Rhythm, timing, and the pause before the physical exertion helped to ease the continued strain of the workers heavy labor. ⁷ What we know as syncopation resulted. ⁸ The Negros spirituals were his expression of his faith and his hope that soon his burden would be lighter and his lot a better one.

Jazz Is a New Art Form

¹ Never has any branch of music made such rapid progress as jazz. ² Since jazz is essentially dance music and created for dancers use, it may continue to improve and develop. ³ It is already exerting a world-wide influence as Americas most distinctive contribution to music.

PRACTICE B

Read the lists of nouns given on pages 186 and 187 and write original sentences in which you use the singular possessive and the plural possessive forms of the nouns that can be used this

way. You may use more than one word in a sentence, but make certain that you use all the words listed.

3. The plurals and possessive forms of names are made in the same way as the plural and possessive forms of other nouns. A few plural forms need special attention.

As a sample exercise, read the following articles and make a list of the plural and the possessive forms of names.

THE JOHANN STRAUSSSES, FATHER AND SON

¹ A name that means much in the musical world is Strauss. ² There are several Strausses in musical history. ³ Johann Strauss was the great waltz king. ⁴ His *Blue Danube* is played everywhere. ⁵ His father was Johann Strauss, Senior, the conductor of the court balls in Vienna. ⁶ These two Strausses did not get along together very well. ⁷ Johann, the father, thought Johann, the younger, did not take his music seriously enough. ⁸ The waltz was the popular music of those times, and Papa Strauss thought the Straussesses' names should not be connected with anything but the most serious music. ⁹ But young Strauss never agreed to that idea and went right on composing waltzes. ¹⁰ The result is that today only one of the two Johanns is well known, and that is Johann Strauss, Junior, the great Viennese Waltz King.

RICHARD STRAUSS

¹ Another famous Strauss, Richard Strauss, also came from a family of musicians. ² Richard was a musical prodigy, a child genius. ³ Before he could write words, he wrote musical notes. ⁴ At six he composed little pieces. ⁵ By the time he was twenty, he had written many beautiful compositions. ⁶ Richard Strauss's music consists of different kinds, sometimes joyous, sometimes brooding, always brilliant. ⁷ Richard Strauss was a humorist in music.

THE FAMOUS B'S

¹ Another set of names that musicians love is the three B's, Bach, Beethoven, and Brahms. ² For six generations the Bachs were musicians. ³ The greatest was Johann Sebastian Bach. ⁴ Once he planned to enter a contest in improvisation; but Bach's rival did not appear at the contest after he had heard Bach play. ⁵ If you have ever studied the piano, you may have played some of his children's pieces. ⁶ The younger Bachs won fame but they never attained the eminence of their great father, Johann Sebastian Bach.

The plural of a name not ending in *s* is made in the usual way by adding *s*, as, *Johanns, Bachs, Browns, Smiths*. The plural of a name ending in *s* is made by adding *es*, as, *Adamses, Strausses, Joneses*. If a name ends in *y*, form the plural by adding *s*, as, the two *Marys*, the three *Tommys*.

The plurals and the possessive forms of names are made like the plural and the possessive forms of other nouns. To make them correctly, you simply have to give attention to the matter until you have mastered the writing of such words.

The possessive with nouns ending in "ing"

Sometimes verb forms ending in *ing* are nouns, as, *singing, dancing, playing*. Whenever you use a noun or a pronoun with a verbal noun, known as a gerund, use the possessive form as you would with any other noun. In *Bach's playing was inspired*, the gerund *playing* is modified by the possessive noun *Bach's*, just as *Bach's music* is. The possessive pronoun is used with a gerund as in this sentence: *His singing is always beautiful*.

Plurals of letters and numbers

A few plural forms need careful attention. They are taken up in this section.

In the article "The Famous B's," you noticed the word group, *the three B's*. The plural of a letter or a number is made

by adding an apostrophe and *s*, as, *Dot your i's and make three x's*, or *Do not make your 3's look like 2's*.

Plurals of foreign nouns

Some nouns that come from foreign languages have plurals unlike other nouns in our language. Here is a list of the most common ones:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
alumnus	alumni
analysis	analyses
basis	bases
crisis	crises
datum	data
parenthesis	parentheses
phenomenon	phenomena
radius	radii

Plurals of compound nouns

Compound nouns generally add *s* to the part of the word that names the person. Notice these examples:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
father-in-law	fathers-in-law
man-of-war	men-of-war
sister-in-law	sisters-in-law

Teaspoonful, *tablespoonful*, *cupful*, and any other familiar compound words add *s* to the end of the word as, *teaspoonfuls*, *tablespoonfuls*, *cupfuls*.

Possessives of compound nouns

The possessives of compound nouns are shown in these examples; *My brother-in-law's car*, *my sisters-in-law's children*. Since *brother-in-law* is singular, *brother* does not have *s* added to it. But since it is possessive, an apostrophe and *s* are added to

the end of the word. Since *sisters-in-law* is plural, *s* is added to the word *sister*; and since it is possessive, an apostrophe and *s* are added to the end of the word.

The possessive in a combination of names

Whenever you wish to show possession in a combination of names, as in *Gilbert and Sullivan's light operas*, add the apostrophe and *s* to the last name. The idea is that the operas belonged to Gilbert and Sullivan together.

Plurals of titles

The plurals of titles need to be noted. Here they are listed:

SINGULAR

Mr.
Miss
Mrs.

PLURAL

Messrs. — the *Messrs. Jones and Brown*
the Misses — the *Misses Jones and Brown*
the Mrs. — the *Mrs. Smiths*

These forms should always be followed by names.

◆ REMEMBER:

1. The plural of a name is made by adding "s" to the name or "es" if the name ends in "s."
2. The singular possessive of a name is made by adding the apostrophe and "s"; the plural possessive is made by adding only an apostrophe.
3. Plurals of some foreign nouns are formed by using "i" or "ac" or "es" or "a."
4. The plural of compound nouns is generally formed by adding "s" to the part of the word that names the person.
5. The possessive of compound nouns is formed by using the apostrophe with the last word.
6. The plurals of titles are used only with names.
7. To make the possessive form in a combination of names, add the apostrophe and "s" to the last name.

PRACTICE A

The following article contains unpunctuated possessive nouns. On a sheet of paper make a list of those nouns and indicate the correct spelling.

ROBERT SCHUMANN

His Desire to Study Music

¹Robert Schumann was a very talented man. ²Robert Schumanns father was a bookseller and publisher. ³His mothers wish was that Robert should become a lawyer, but from the time of the boys first music lesson, he knew that his lifes work would be music. ⁴While he was studying law at the University of Leipzig, he became Friedrich Wiecks piano pupil. ⁵In the home of this famous teacher, he met Wiecks nine-year-old daughter, Clara. ⁶This childs talent was already remarkable; she was an accomplished pianist. ⁷Schumann grew restless. ⁸He begged his mothers consent to study music only. ⁹Mrs. Schumanns answer was: "It shall be Professor Wiecks decision."

His Misfortune

¹Joyously Schumann went to Leipzig to live in his teachers home. ²Claras brilliant playing challenged him. ³Later they married. ⁴But his lifes career was ended when one of his fingers was injured. ⁵Sad in spirit he turned to composing. ⁶He also became editor and publisher of a musical journal. ⁷In this magazine Schumann was the first to write of Chopins genius, Berliozs compositions, and Mendelssohns great talent.

Success in Composing

¹Then Schumann went to Vienna, the worlds musical capital at that time. ²He visited Beethovens and Schuberts graves which lie side by side. ³On Beethovens grave he found a rusty steel pen. ⁴"It must have been Schuberts, dropped here before he died," was Schumanns thought. ⁵"I shall write with it." ⁶The Schumanns lives were very happy. ⁷In a year more than one hundred of Roberts songs were composed. ⁸Three symphonies were Schumanns work

the next year. ⁹ Chamber music and choral pieces came rapidly from this composers pen. ¹⁰ He met young Brahms and wrote an enthusiastic article praising Brahms music.

¹¹ Later Brahms devotion to his friends memory helped to bring Schumanns music to public attention. ¹² From that time on, people have always enjoyed and appreciated the beauty and feeling expressed in Robert Schumanns melodies.

PRACTICE B

Here are exercises in which you use the information given in the "Remembers" on page 197.

(1)

Write sentences that have the singular and plural forms of the foreign nouns.

(2)

Write a set of sentences that illustrate the two rules for the spelling of compound nouns.

(3)

Write five sentences in which you use the singular possessive and the plural possessive forms of compound words.

(4)

Use five illustrations of the possessive of combinations of names.

(5)

Illustrate the plural forms of the titles *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, and *Miss* in original sentences.

4. Review of plural and possessive nouns.

As a practice exercise, read the following paragraph and list the singular and plural forms of the italicized words.

DO YOU SELECT YOUR RADIO PROGRAMS?

Your Radio Bill of Fare

¹ What is your *radio bill of fare* in the *way* of music?

² Are you like some *men* and *women* in the *cities* and *towns* throughout the *country* who simply turn on the radio and take whatever music comes? ³ This *practice* shows no more discernment than *children* would have. ⁴ Is that the way you eat? ⁵ When you go to a restaurant, do you say to the *waitress*, pointing to the menu, "Bring all of it here just as it is"? ⁶ Your *stomach* would rebel. ⁷ And your mind should refuse to accept all the music that comes over any *network*. ⁸ You can watch for announced *programs*. ⁹ The *truth* is that we generally like what we know and understand, and we don't like what we are unfamiliar with or don't understand. ¹⁰ When you chose a program, listen to it attentively. ¹¹ No one can really hear a great musical *composition* and work a grammar *lesson*. ¹² You may do a little of both, but you won't get much out of either.

Listening to Music

¹ If it is a *symphony* you are hearing, notice how the com-

poser first presents each *theme*, how he develops it in various ways, and how he concludes it. ² The world's great *operas* are given on the radio. ³ An opera is a *play* in which each actor or actress sings a part. ⁴ Even if the opera is sung in a foreign *language*, the solos and *choruses* with the orchestra accompaniment will give you pleasure. ⁵ A *concerto* is a composition in which some musical instrument plays an intricate *solo* with the orchestra as the *accompaniment*. ⁶ One may be an aria from an opera, the solo that one of the *actors* sings; another may be a simple *melody*, like a *lullaby*, a love song, a cowboy's lonely song in a plaintive *key*, or a *Negro* spiritual. ⁷ If you listen to all music thoughtfully, you will find that all kinds of music have their *beauty*. ⁸ You can develop an appreciation and understanding of music.

Master the spelling of the singular and plural forms of the words you have listed. You can learn to spell correctly if you

will make the effort. Some pupils must spend much thought and study in learning to spell.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. *The plural of a noun may be formed by adding "s" or "es," by changing the last letter and adding "es," or by changing the word itself.*
2. *The plurals of letters and numbers are formed by adding an apostrophe and "s."*
3. *The singular possessive is formed by adding an apostrophe and "s."*
4. *The plural possessive is formed by adding an apostrophe if the plural ends in "s" or by adding an apostrophe and "s" if the plural does not end in "s."*

PRACTICE A

These exercises will give you a chance to review the spelling of plural and possessive forms.

The following article has the various forms of names in it. List the plural and possessive forms of the names. This article has several words that end in *y*. List the singular form and write their plural and possessive forms.

GEORGE GERSHWIN

¹The family of George Gershwin lived on the lower East Side of the city of New York. ²His parents' nationality was Russian. ³George was not a musical prodigy. ⁴He took keen enjoyment in sports. ⁵One of his earliest musical memories was hearing a fascinating melody on an automatic piano. ⁶It was Rubinstein's *Melody in F*. ⁷Later, when George had the opportunity to take piano lessons, he found his beloved teacher, Charles Hambitzer. ⁸This man's understanding of Gershwin's ability was the key to a new world for Gershwin. ⁹Harmony interested him. ¹⁰The success of Jerome Kern's tuneful music and Irving Berlin's *Alexander's Ragtime Band* made him see the possibility of a career in writing musical comedy. ¹¹The Gershwins, George and his brother Ira, wrote *Lady Be Good*,

a delightful musical comedy. ¹² *Rhapsody in Blue*, another of George Gershwin's compositions, was written at Paul Whiteman's request. ¹³ The year 1926 was memorable for the Gershwins' trip to Paris. ¹⁴ The two brothers' pleasure was shared by their sister Frances and by Ira's wife. ¹⁵ While in Paris, George planned and nearly completed *An American in Paris*, a truly American tone poem. ¹⁶ The opera *Porgy and Bess*, Gershwin's first and only opera, was a success from its first performance in 1935.

*PRACTICE B

Make a spelling test for the class in which the various spelling words given in this lesson must be used. You may write isolated sentences, or you may write related sentences. Be sure that you can pass your own test.

Books About Music

This list includes just a few books about how music grew, about American songs, and about the people who compose songs and music.

A Story of Music, by Harriot Buxton Barbour and Warren S. Freeman. C. C. Birchard and Company, Boston, 1937

Alice in Orchestralia, by Ernest La Prade. Doubleday, Page & Company, Garden City, New York, 1925

America Sings, by Carl Carmer. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1942

The American Songbag, by Carl Sandburg. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1927

Finlandia, The Story of Sibelius, by Elliott Arnold. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1941

Frédéric Chopin, by André Maurois. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942

How Music Grew, by Marion Bauer and Ethel Peyser. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1928

Of Men and Music, by Deems Taylor. Simon and Schuster, New York, 1937

On Wings of Song: the Story of Mendelssohn, by Dena Humphreys. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1944

Songs of American Folks, by Satis N. Coleman and Adolph Bregman. The John Day Company, New York, 1942

Stories of Our American Patriotic Songs, by John Henry Lyons. The Vanguard Press, New York, 1942

Stories of Our National Songs, by William J. Hart. W. A. Wilde Company, Boston, 1942

The Story of Gershwin, by David Ewen. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1943

UNIT NINE

Verbs: Their Forms and Correct Use

Why are verbs considered the most important part of speech? The reason is that every sentence has a verb in it. Besides, there are a few verbs that cause about 80 per cent of all the errors made in spoken language. You can see how necessary it is for you to have practice in the correct use of these verbs.

1. Every verb has its principal parts.

The infinitive or present, the past, and the past participle

Notice the italicized verbs in these sentences:

1. I *play* ball every Saturday.
2. I *played* ball at camp last summer.
3. I have *played* ball for years.

The italicized words are the principal * parts of the verb *play*. When we mention a verb in this book, we generally use the name form, which is called the infinitive. The name form, or infinitive, of most verbs is the same as the present. In the verb *play*, for example, the present is *play*, the past is *played*, and the past participle is *played*. You see how regularly these parts are formed; *ed* is simply added to the present to form the past and the past participle.

* Watch these two words: *principal* and *principle*. Look up their meanings in your dictionary and learn their use and spelling if you do not already know them.

Here are the principal parts of another verb:

1. I *mean* what I say.
2. My answer *meant* the same thing.
3. He had *meant* something very different.

Any verb that forms its past tense and past participle by adding *d*, *ed*, or *t* to the infinitive is called a regular verb.

Now study the three forms italicized in these sentences:

1. Every year we *begin* the fall sports season with football.
2. Last year we *began* with a strong team.
3. This year we have *begun* with an even stronger team.

These verb forms are irregular, for the past and the past participle are formed by changing the word itself instead of just adding an ending: *begin*, *began*, *begun*. Whenever a verb itself is changed to form the past and the past participle, it is called an irregular verb.

Practically every verb has three principal parts: the infinitive, or present; the past; and the past participle. Regular verbs form the past and the past participle by adding *d*, *ed*, or *t* to the infinitive. Irregular verbs form the past and past participle by a change within the verb itself.

Pick out the verbs in the following article. Can you tell which principal part each verb is?

ARE YOU A SPORTSMAN OR A SPORTS FAN?

Following the Seasons

¹ Some people have thought that they have been sportsmen when they were only sports fans. ² They have imagined that they were sportsmen because they followed the *athletic seasons one after another.

* Do you pronounce *athlete* correctly? It is *ath'lete*. It has only two syllables. The pronunciation of *athletic* is *ath let'ic* with only three syllables.

Football

¹ They began with football.
² They went to the weekly games and became the fans of certain individual players and of a particular team. ³ They would sit through games at the first of the season when the heat was intense, and they would sit through games at the end of the season when the field was nearly frozen. ⁴ If the team won, the fans stood and shouted with joy. ⁵ If the team lost, the fans drooped in disappointment.

Basketball

¹ Basketball came next. ² If at the end of the season the team was in first place and had won the championship, the followers of the game sat on the bleachers and yelled their approval.

Track

¹ Next the trackmen went into action. ² Their fans attended the meets and sat and watched them as they ran. ³ When a favorite had broken all previous records, the onlookers shouted their approval. ⁴ They jumped up and down and waved their arms in great excitement. ⁵ They enjoyed sports events, but they missed the fun of participation in sports.

What verbs did you find? Here are the first of them: *thought, been, were, imagined, followed, began, went, became*. These verbs and the others in the article all have principal parts.

Some common irregular verbs

A list of common irregular verbs follows. In these verbs the word itself is changed somewhat to form the past tense and the past participle instead of just having an ending added to it. You will notice that the verb *be* has the present forms *am, is, and are*. You will notice also that for some of these verbs the past and past participle are different.

IRREGULAR VERBS

INFINITIVE OR PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
be (am, is, are)	was, were	been
bear	bore	born
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
do	did	done
drink	drank	drunk
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
have (has)	had	had
hold	held	held
know	knew	known
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
* lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
ring	rang	rung
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sing	sang	sung
stand	stood	stood
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn

* Do you ever confuse the spelling and the meaning of *loose* and *lose*? They are two different verbs. Go to the dictionary for their meanings.

INFINITIVE OR PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
think	thought	thought
throw	threw	thrown
wear	wore	worn
win	won	won
write	wrote	written

All the verbs in this list are irregular verbs. Do you know their forms for the past tense and the past participle?

Can you distinguish between regular and irregular verbs? Read the following article, in which the verbs are italicized. As a sample exercise, pick out the irregular verbs. (You may disregard the helping verbs, *must* and *does*.)

HOW TO BE A SUCCESSFUL SPORTSMAN

¹ Competitive sports *are* popular everywhere. ² Most young people *know* that success in sports does not *depend* entirely on good coaching. ³ They *know* that they must *begin* to *educate* their bodies through rigorous and persistent practice. ⁴ At the moment of supreme effort, the athlete *needs* a sturdy body, well-developed muscles, and steady nerves. ⁵ On the baseball field the batter who *wins* the game with a perfect hit must *have* more than a keen eye and a knowledge of baseball. ⁶ He must *have* strength and speed. ⁷ The successful basketball player or hockey player *requires* a good pair of legs that *possess* speed but he also *needs* a strong body. ⁸ The athlete who *becomes* a champion in the running high jump must first *have* spring in his legs; but his success *depends* as much upon the control of his body while he *is* in the air above the crossbar.

Each principal part has a special use of its own. This information will be given in the next lesson. For the present you should know this fact: the past participle is always used with an auxiliary verb, generally *has*, *have*, or *had*. Other auxiliary verbs are discussed on pages 215 and 323.

The present participle

A fourth principal part, which nearly all verbs have, is the present participle, as, *going, running, seeing*. The present participle is formed by adding *ing* to the infinitive.

Some common regular verbs

One regular verb should be called to your attention. It is *drown*. Both the past tense and the past participle are *drowned*. Do you pronounce this verb correctly? It has only one syllable: *drowned*. Don't put an extra *d* in it and so make two syllables.

A few regular verbs keep the same form for all three parts. Here is a short list of such verbs:

INFINITIVE OR PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
burst	burst	burst
cut	cut	cut
hurt	hurt	hurt
let	let	let
put	put	put

Notice the past and the past participle of *burst*. All forms of this verb are *burst*. Do you ever use any other word when you mean *burst*? There is no such verb as *burst**ed*. The verb *bust* is slang for *burst* or, more often, for *break*. You may have heard the term *bronco busting*. It is commonly used for *bronco breaking*. As a careful speaker and writer you will not want to use *bust* when what you really mean is *burst*.

The principal parts of a few regular verbs are sometimes formed not only by adding *d* or *ed* or *t* but also by changing the pronunciation of the past and the past participle. Study this list carefully. Read the words aloud and note the change in pronunciation.

INFINITIVE OR PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
deal	dealt	dealt
hear	heard	heard
mean	meant	meant
read	read	read

"Get"

The principal parts of the verb *get* should be noted. They are *get, got, got, gotten*. *Gotten* is an older form of the past participle *got*. It is not used much now. *Get* or *got* should not be used when you really mean *have* or *had*, as *I have a good position, The poor child has a bad cold*.

Now read the following article, "Building an Athlete's Body." As a sample exercise, pick out the verbs, deciding what principal part each verb form is. What are the other three forms of each verb?

BUILDING AN ATHLETE'S BODY

Two Requisites for
An Educated Body

¹ A champion athlete has said that you can educate your body so that you will have a good chance for success in any sport that is your choice. ² According to him, there are two things you should do. ³ First, practice faithfully five track and field events, which will develop every part of your body. ⁴ Second, live in a sensible, wholesome way.

The Five Events

¹ The five events that you should practice are running, broad jumping, hurdling, high jumping, and shot-putting. ² This plan, the champion asserts, demands patience, self-control, and hard work. ³ But he believes that a body which possesses no weakness is worth all the time and effort you put into practice. ⁴ The champion advises a carefully planned schedule. ⁵ Give an hour and a half to your training four or five days a week. ⁶ Wait at least a half hour after school or study. ⁷ Finish an hour and a half before you eat your evening meal. ⁸ Rest before you take your shower.

How to Live Sensibly

¹ Although practice is of first importance in the development of your body, other things are almost as important. ² Eat wholesome food. ³ Eat vegetables, especially the green and yellow

vegetables. ⁴ Drink milk with every meal. ⁵ Get a good night's rest, never less than nine hours.

The Result

¹ Persistent practice will educate your body into an efficient machine that will perform as you want it to. ² Practice is a matter of about ninety minutes a day, four or five days a week. ³ Sensible living will give you health. ⁴ It is a matter of twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. Most verbs have four principal parts: the infinitive or present, past, present participle, and past participle.
2. Most regular verbs form the past and past participle by adding "d," "ed," or "t" to the present. Some regular verbs have the same form for all parts.
3. Irregular verbs form their past and past participle by changing the form of the word itself.
4. The present participle of any verb is formed by adding "ing" to the infinitive.

PRACTICE A

(1)

Now for some practice with the principal parts of verbs. Make four columns, heading them with the four principal parts in this order: Infinitive or Present, Past, Present Participle, Past Participle. Then read the following article. Place each main verb in the proper column, depending upon which principal part it is. Omit auxiliary verbs. Underline each verb. When you have finished reading and have made your lists, complete each verb by adding the omitted principal parts.

FOOTBALL

Understanding the Game

¹ Do you understand football? ² How do the players on a football team score? ³ Can you follow a football game on the

radio? ⁴You do know, of course, that each team tries to put the ball over the other team's goal line, and that one team wins when it makes more points than the other. ⁵If you heard that one team made a touchdown but failed in the try-for-point and that the opposing team had kicked a field goal and had scored a safety, could you be sure which team had the greater score?

The Field

¹The field is marked in rectangular shape. ²At each end zone are the goal posts. ³They are joined by a crossbar. ⁴White lines mark each five-yard line. ⁵The ball must be moved ten yards toward the opponent's goal line in four plays, called downs, or the team carrying the ball loses it.

The Officials and Their Duties

¹The officials for each game are a referee, an umpire, a head linesman, and a field judge. ²The referee has general control of the game. ³He sees that the ball is properly put in play and judges its position and progress during the game. ⁴The umpire controls the equipment, conduct, and positions of the players. ⁵The head linesman marks the position of the ball on each down. ⁶Under his supervision assistants measure the distances gained or lost. ⁷The field judge is the timekeeper of the game and watches for down-field violations of the rules.

(2)

Read the rest of the article about football. Here you have more practice with principal parts. In this exercise you select the correct principal part of the suggested verb. Jot down on a piece of paper the numbers of the parentheses and after each number write the proper form of the verb suggested in parentheses and indicate the name of the part used. Do not use the infinitive or present form.

The Players

Let's summarize yesterday's game. The coach ¹(choose) eleven men from his football squad. Seven ²(be) linemen. The others ³(be) two halfbacks, one fullback, and one quarterback. A

field captain had been ⁴ (choose) or ⁵ (appoint) for the game, or the team could have ⁶ (elect) a permanent captain for the season. The quarterback's duties ⁷ (be) to decide upon the strategy of the game. He ⁸ (be) the leader of the team. Under certain rules a player was ⁹ (substitute) for another. An incoming substitute ¹⁰ (report) to the umpire, who ¹¹ (send) out the player whom the substitute ¹² (replace).

Plays

The opening play of the game ¹ (be) a kickoff. A kickoff ² (be) also the first play after the intermission. This play could have ³ (be) either a drop kick or a place kick from any point on the 40-yard line of the team ⁴ (make) the kickoff. The line of scrimmage for each team ⁵ (be) an imaginary line parallel to the goal lines ⁶ (pass) through that point of the ball nearest the team's own goal line. In a scrimmage the team in possession of the ball ⁷ (have) seven or more players on the line of scrimmage when the ball was ⁸ (snap) into play. Many times during the game one of the backfield players ⁹ (carry) the ball or ¹⁰ (pass) forward or ¹¹ (throw) the ball laterally to one of his teammates, or he ¹² (kick) the ball. The ball was ¹³ (carry) to or above or across the goal line for a touchdown. A forward pass ¹⁴ (complete) behind the goal line ¹⁵ (count) as a touchdown.

Scores

Remember when our team ¹ (make) our first touchdown? In doing so it ² (score) six points. It ³ (add) one additional point when it successfully ⁴ (do) one of these things: ⁵ (kick) a field goal by placement, drop ⁶ (kick) from the field, ⁷ (carry) the ball above or across the goal line, or ⁸ (complete) a forward pass in the end zone. Do you recall when the team ⁹ (make) a goal from the field? That play ¹⁰ (count) three points. It was ¹¹ (make) when the ball was ¹² (pass) between the uprights and above the crossbar of the goal post. This could have been ¹³ (do) by either a place kick or a drop kick. It might have been ¹⁴ (do) by a kickoff, but such a long kick would have ¹⁵ (be) almost impossible. Suppose the opponents had ¹⁶ (make) a safety. In doing so, they would have ¹⁷ (score) two points. A safety might have been ¹⁸ (make) when a free ball or a

ball legally in possession of a player guarding his own goal ¹⁰ (become) dead, any part of it being on, about, or behind the goal line. The winner of the game was ²⁰ (decide) by the final score at the end of the four quarters.

PRACTICE B

(1)

In order to have practice in using the various principal parts of important verbs, write original sentences in which you use the past and the past participle of *do, eat, freeze, forget, leave, see, lose, go, drink, throw, swim, grow*. Your teacher may want you to dictate your sentences to the class, indicating which verb (but not which principal part) you are using in each sentence. See whether anyone can list correctly all your verb forms.

(2)

In every dictionary the principal parts of irregular verbs are indicated after the word. The abbreviation *pret.* stands for the Latin word that means *past*, and the initials *p. pr.* stand for *past participle*. Use the dictionary and list the principal parts of these verbs: *swell, dive, fly, flow, find, keep, know, leave, sleep, sweep, catch, draw, work, hide, bring, prove, breathe, clothe*.

2. Every verb has tense and person and number.

Tense

Verbs indicate the time of an action. For example, you may say: *Today I play football. Yesterday I played soccer. Tomorrow I shall play another game.* The verb *play* indicates action in present time, *played* shows action in past time, and *shall play* means action in future time. Different verb forms indicate different times and show tenses.

The three basic tenses are the present, past, and future. The present and the past tenses are two of the principal parts. The future tense is made by using *shall* or *will* with the infinitive.

Three other tenses are shown in these sentences:

1. Now I *have played* an entire game.
2. I *had thrown* the ball before he called to me.
3. By this time tomorrow I *shall have seen* the coach.

In each of these verbs there is *have* or *had*. The presence of this auxiliary verb makes the entire verb a *perfect* tense form. That is, the action is perfected or completed. The form *have played* means that the action is completed or perfected in present time. *Have*, you see, is present. This tense is called the present perfect tense.

Had is past tense. When it is used in *I had thrown the ball*, it makes the verb past perfect. That is, the action of the verb was completed or perfected in past time. The tense of *had thrown* is past perfect tense.

When action is to be completed in future time, the future perfect tense is used. Notice how the verb in this sentence shows action completed in future time: *I shall have seen the coach by this time tomorrow*. The future perfect tense is formed by adding *shall have* or *will have* to the past participle.

This outline gives you an idea of the different tenses.

BASIC TENSES

(Indicating simple action
performed by the subject)

Present: I play

Past: I played

Future: I shall play

PERFECT TENSES

(Indicating completed action)

Present Perfect: I have played

Past Perfect: I had played

Future Perfect: I shall have played

Read the first part of the article "They Played It First in India." As a sample exercise, pick out the verbs and tell the tense of each.

THEY PLAYED IT FIRST IN INDIA

¹ A game that appeals to many people is badminton. ² The origin of the game has considerable interest for its fans. ³ Some English officers in India had gone to the village of Poona for a vacation from the intense heat of Bombay. ⁴ There they saw some natives at their favorite game. ⁵ The Englishmen tried it, liked it, and called it Poona. ⁶ Later, after one of the Englishmen had left India, he visited a country estate at Badminton, England. ⁷ One day he took the cork of a bottle, attached some goose quills to it, and used it as a shuttle for the game he had seen at Poona. ⁸ He and his friends decided then and there that it was a good sport. ⁹ That game has become modern badminton, which has the name of the town in England where it was first played in its present form.

Each verb in this article is in one of the six tenses. You notice that each tense uses one of the principal parts. The present and the past principal parts form the present and past tenses. The future tense makes use of the infinitive form with *shall* or *will*. The perfect tenses use the past participle and an auxiliary verb.

Number and person

Verbs have other characteristics in addition to principal parts and tense. Notice, for example, the different forms in the present and past tenses of *be*:

PRESENT

SINGULAR

1. I am
2. You are
3. He, she, it, is

PLURAL

1. We are
2. You are
3. They are

PAST

SINGULAR

1. I was
2. You were
3. He, she, it, was

PLURAL

1. We were
2. You were
3. They were

Do you see that the verb forms have number? In the present tense, *am* is singular because the subject is singular: *I am*. *Are* is plural because the subject is plural: *We are*. Not only do the subjects differ in form; the verbs also differ in form. Notice the singular forms in the present tense. They are: *I am, you are, he is*.

In each of these groups the subject and the verb are different. In the first, the subject *I* is the person speaking, and it is known as the first person. The second form *you* is the person spoken to, and it is known as the second person. The third form is the person spoken of, *he, she, or it*. Each of these is known as the third person. In the plural these three persons are *we, you, they*. Verbs have person, depending upon the person of the subject.

Every verb has tense and person and number. Tense forms differ, sometimes regularly, sometimes irregularly. The forms that show person and number are almost always the same. In all verbs, however, there is one very important change. Notice the present forms of *run*:

PRESENT TENSE

SINGULAR

1. I run
2. You run
3. He *runs*

PLURAL

1. We run
2. You run
3. They run

All present forms of *run* are *run* except the third person singular, which is *runs*. Notice that this form ends in *s*.

"Can" and "may," "could" and "might"

The auxiliaries *can* and *may* are often used. They are present tense in form, as *I can go* or *you may stay*. *Could* and *might* are the past forms of these verbs. They have only two tenses.

Read the rest of the article on badminton that follows here. As a sample exercise, pick out each verb and tell what its tense and person and number are. You look to the subject for the person and number.

Where to Play Badminton

¹ You can play badminton indoors or outdoors. ² A quiet spot by the backyard fence where the wind does not blow is an ideal place for a badminton court. ³ The game demands but little space. ⁴ Any smooth surface under foot will serve.

The Good Player

¹ A person can play badminton as hard or as gently as he likes. ² When a player has developed skill, badminton is one of the fastest of all games. ³ The expert badminton player has developed many different qualities. ⁴ Someone has said he must have swiftness of foot and strength of wrist. ⁵ In addition the good badminton player possesses endurance, quickness, and dexterity.

A Good Game

¹ Badminton requires a net like a tennis net, a racket similar to a tennis racket, but smaller and lighter. ² You play with a shuttle like the cork with the goose quills. ³ The shuttle is called a "bird." ⁴ Badminton has become a highly developed game. ⁵ Champions from all nations have shown that an expert badminton player is an athlete of considerable ability.

"Do"

Here is another important present tense:

PRESENT TENSE

SINGULAR

1. I do
2. You do
3. He does

PLURAL

1. We do
2. You do
3. They do

The third person singular is *does*. Any subject that is third person singular demands the third person singular verb form, as, Mary *does*, Mother *does*, the man *does*. Other third person singular verb forms are he *goes*, the teacher *works*, my uncle *plays*. You will find that the third person singular ends in *s*.

" Shall " and " will "

The formation of the future and the future perfect demands the correct use of *shall* and *will*. They should not be used interchangeably.

When a person says, "I shall come tomorrow," he means, "I expect to come tomorrow." But when he says, "I will come tomorrow," he means, "I am determined to come tomorrow." In other words, *shall*, when used by the first person, means expectancy in future time, whereas *will* in the first person means determination in future time.

In second and third person the meanings of *shall* and *will* are just the opposite. If your teacher says, "You will read three pages for tomorrow," he means, "You are to read those pages, for they are the lesson." If, on the other hand, he says, "You shall read those pages," he means, "You must read them" or "I am determined that you *shall* read those pages."

This outline may help you to remember the correct meanings of *shall* and *will*:

SHALL AND WILL

EXPECTANCY	DETERMINATION
(in future time)	(in future time)
1. I shall	1. I will
2. You will	2. You shall
3. He will	3. They shall

One verb that has no principal parts except the present form is *ought*. This verb can be used in only the present tense. *Ought* is not used with *had* or any other auxiliary verb.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. Verbs have six tenses — three basic tenses: present, past, and future; three perfect tenses: present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect.
2. The present and past tenses are formed from the present and past principal parts. The future tenses add "shall" or "will" to the infinitive. The perfect tenses use the auxiliary verbs "has," "have," or "had" with the present participle.
3. "Shall" shows expectancy in the first person and determination in the second and third persons. "Will" shows determination in the first person and expectancy in the second and third persons.
4. Verbs have singular and plural number.
5. Verbs have person. The third person singular of the present tense ends in "s."

PRACTICE A

(1)

Can you tell the tense of any verb? Read the following paragraphs and make a list of all verbs. After each indicate the tense, the person, and the number of the verb. Include the entire verb, the main verb with the auxiliary verb.

AN ANCIENT SPORT

Archery and Robin Hood

¹ Archery had become a great skill in Robin Hood's time. ² His prowess has been the theme of song and story. ³ One account tells that this legendary hero shot his arrow for a distance of 300 feet. ⁴ Once he drew bow, aimed, and hit a willow stick 100 yards away. ⁵ Who has matched that record? ⁶ What modern archer will surpass Robin Hood's skill?

Getting Food in Early America

¹ Archery has a chapter of history in our country also. ² It came as a sport from England with men who had time for such pleasures. ³ However, some colonists had seen the ability of the Indians with bow and arrow and had suffered from their skill. ⁴ In their own defense, the settlers adopted the Indian's weapon and soon had learned its use. ⁵ A few settlers got wild turkey for Thanksgiving dinner by the same weapons that the Indians used.

A Sport for Everyone

¹ Today both sexes enjoy archery. ² Indeed, it has been for a long time a popular contest sport for girls. ³ Many schools and colleges teach archery to both boys and girls. ⁴ All ages enjoy the sport. ⁵ A fifteen-year-old girl once won a championship. ⁶ The older man, who has given up rigorous exercise, will find archery just what he requires. ⁷ Women compete with men under the same rules and conditions. ⁸ Few sports possess this advantage. ⁹ Winter simply puts the game inside; it does not end it.

(2)

Here again you have to choose the correct form of the verb suggested. Do you know the various tenses well enough to do this? Jot down on a piece of paper the verbs that should be used in the following paragraph.

YOU CAN PLAY, TOO

Archery ¹ (present of *be*) a game for all. You ² (present of *need*) very little equipment, and at first a small space ³ (future of *do*). Your own backyard probably ⁴ (future of *provide*) an adequate distance and space, but later you must have the space the rules of the sport demand. Children ⁵ (future of *shoot*) twenty to fifty yards; adults ⁶ (future of *require*) thirty to one hundred yards. A backstop ⁷ (present of *be*) necessary, for stray arrows ⁸ (present of *be*) dangerous. Many cities ⁹ (present perfect of *build*) archery ranges in public playgrounds. The necessary equipment ¹⁰ (present of *consist*) of bow and arrow and target. You ¹¹ (future of *find*) directions, rules, and count in a book on sports in any library.

*PRACTICE B

A few other facts about verbs are important. Here is your chance to learn them.

(I)

Verbs have a form in all tenses known as the *progressive* form. Note these examples:

BASIC TENSES

Present: I am studying

Past: I was studying

Future: I shall be studying

PERFECT TENSES

Present Perfect: I have been studying

Past Perfect: I had been studying

Future Perfect: I shall have been studying

One often uses progressive forms to indicate action that is progressing. In a book you are now reading, find ten illustrations of progressive forms. In other words, select predicates that consist of auxiliary verbs with the present participles of main verbs.

(2)

Possibly you have noticed such verb forms as *I do study*, *I did study*. In these verb forms *do* is used as an auxiliary verb with the present part of the main verb. This form of the verb, in which *do* is used for the sake of emphasis, is known as the emphatic form. For practice, write five original sentences in the present emphatic and five in the past emphatic. Use different verbs in every sentence.

(3)

On page 219 you have learned the use of *shall* and *will* in forming the future tense of verbs when they are used in statements.

You often need to use *shall* and *will* in questions. In the first person use *shall* as in *Shall I see you tomorrow?* In the second and third person use the word you expect in the answer. For example, you say, *Shall you go to school tomorrow?* because you expect the answer: *I shall go to school tomorrow*. If, however, you expect the idea of determination in the answer you use *will*. Suppose the question is, *Will you play in the tournament?* The answer indicates determination — *I will* (or *I will not*) *play*.

Write eight questions in which you use *shall* or *will*. Then in parentheses after each question state the answer and add whether future expectancy or future determination is indicated.

3. Verbs such as "lie" and "lay," "sit" and "set," "rise" and "raise," have different meanings and their principal parts may not be interchanged.

"Lie" and "lay"

Certain verbs in our language are so much alike that they may be considered in pairs; yet they have different parts and

different meanings. Notice, for example, the italicized verbs in the following sentences:

1. The ball *lies* on the grass.
2. He *lays* the ball on the grass.

Lies and *lays* are the present tense, third person, singular number of two different verbs. *Lies* is the present tense of *lie*, meaning *to recline*. *Lays* is the present tense of *lay*, meaning *to place something*. Here are the principal parts of these two verbs:

PRESENT	PAST	PRESENT PARTICIPLE	PAST PARTICIPLE
lie	lay	lying	lain
lay	laid	laying	laid

The principal parts of this pair of verbs may not be used interchangeably. When you wish to use the past tense of *lie*, meaning *to recline*, you must use *lay* and not *laid*. You must be equally exact in the use of the past participles: *lain* when you use the verb *lie* and *laid* when you use the verb *lay*. The following sentences illustrate the use of the past and the past participles of the two verbs:

Lie

Past: The team *lay* down on the grass between quarters.

Past Participle: The team has *lain* down on the grass.

Lay

Past: The referee *laid* the ball on the fifty-yard line.

Past Participle: The referee has *laid* the ball on the fifty-yard line.

Notice that the verb *lie* in the different tenses has no object. *Lie* cannot have an object when it is used correctly, for it means *to recline*. A person cannot *recline* someone or something. The subject is always the person or thing that lies down, or reclines. *Lay*, on the other hand, always means that *something is placed somewhere*. To be used correctly, *laid* (the past tense of *lay*) means that someone placed something.

You will find more information about these two verbs and others discussed in this lesson.

Read the beginning of this story about John Warren, a boy who played football. As a sample exercise, pick out the various forms of *lie* and *lay* and tell what tense each is.

HIS FAVORITE GAME

John Warren's Hobby

¹ John was the athlete of the family. ² He played fullback on the high-school football team. ³ All he could think of was football. ⁴ When he lay in bed in the morning, before he dressed, he would first think of the practice scheduled for that day. ⁵ More than once he had lain on his bed with all his thought on the clever plays he would make. ⁶ At dinner he would sometimes sit without a word and rehearse in his mind all that had happened. ⁷ In the evenings he often lay on the couch and had visions of the remarkable things he would sometime do in a big game. ⁸ Even in school John's prime interest lay in football.

"Sit" and "set"

Another pair of verbs is *sit* and *set*. *Sit* means to *seat oneself*, and *set* means to *place something*. Notice their principal parts:

PRESENT	PAST	PRESENT PARTICIPLE	PAST PARTICIPLE
sit	sat	sitting	sat
set	set	setting	set

The principal parts of this pair of verbs must be used exactly and not interchangeably. *Sit* is an irregular verb with a different word for the past and past participle; *set* is a regular verb with the same form for present, past, and past participle. The following sentences illustrate the past tense of both verbs:

1. The audience *sat* quietly.
2. The judge *set* the trophy on the stand.

Sit never has an object; *set* always has the meaning of *something being placed*. You can never *sit* a person or thing; you yourself *sit*, because the meaning of *sit* is to *seat oneself*. Just the opposite is true of *set*; it means to *place something*.

Here is more of John Warren's story. You will find forms of *lie* and *lay* and *sit* and *set* in it. As a sample exercise, pick out each of these and decide upon its tense.

John and His Father

¹ One evening when John was lying on the couch in the living room, he remarked, "Football is the only game worthy of the name of athletics." ² If ever I have a son, I will make him a football player." ³ His father raised his eyebrows, as fathers can, and laid his hand on the boy's shoulder. ⁴ "Look here, John, there are other games that set a high standard of physical fitness." ⁵ John rose and shouted, "Name one!" ⁶ The older man sat still and answered quietly, "Now, son, don't raise your voice." ⁷ Sit down and listen to me. ⁸ You lay too much importance on football, and you set too little emphasis on other athletic activities. ⁹ Of course you will excel in only one game, but give credit to the fellow who excels in another game."

"Rise" and "raise"

A third pair of verbs is *rise* and *raise*. *Rise* means to *become higher*; *raise* means to *lift something*. These sentences show the difference in the meanings of the verbs:

1. I *rise* early every morning and take a walk.
2. I *raise* the windows every morning.

The forms of *rise* never have objects. The forms of *raise* generally have the meaning of *something being raised*. You can *raise* something or someone, but you cannot *rise* anything.

The forms of these verbs demand exact use; for, though their forms are similar, their meanings are different. *Rise* is an ir-

regular verb with different forms for the past and past participle. *Raise* is a regular verb which forms its parts by the addition of *d* to the infinitive. Here are the principal parts of *rise* and *raise*:

INFINITIVE			
OR PRESENT	PAST	PRESENT PARTICIPLE	PAST PARTICIPLE
rise	rose	rising	risen
raise	raised	raising	raised

These three pairs of verbs need much study. If necessary, memorize their principal parts and meanings. This preliminary study will help you greatly in later work which is given on page 322.

In the rest of the story about John Warren you will find the verbs discussed in this lesson. Use these paragraphs as a sample exercise. As you read them pick out the verbs of the lesson and note the principal part of each. Then give the other parts.

HIS DAD'S GAME

Pitching Horseshoes

¹"For instance, take pitching horseshoes," said John's father as he sat down. ²"You needn't lie there and laugh! ³Sit up and learn something about that game. ⁴It is ages older than football, more famous men in history have played it, and it is a good game in every way." ⁵In his enthusiasm he raised his voice.

Its Famous Players

¹"Pitching horseshoes or 'barnyard golf,' is also a good game," said John's father as he rose to his feet. ²"The first chief justice of our country was an expert player, a recent vice-president of the United States played the game well, and a famous publisher was a champion. ³Everyone can play the game in his own backyard. ⁴It's good exercise, and it's fun." ⁵John said nothing but lay down again and went on thinking about football.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. The meaning and the principal parts of certain pairs of verbs, "lie" and "lay," "rise" and "raise," "sit" and "set," are different and they may not be used interchangeably.
2. "Lie," "rise," and "sit" never have objects.

PRACTICE A

Here is practice work with the verbs given in this lesson. Some of the sentences in the following paragraphs have blanks with numbers in them. Make a list of the numbers under each subheading of the story and after each number write the verb that should be inserted. Use only the verbs studied in this lesson.

DON TRIES FISHING

Don in the Country

Don awoke early, and (1) comfortably with drowsy thoughts. "Jack is a swell boy and a good pal. He knows the country and country life. And today we are going fishing." These thoughts ran through Don's mind. Don (2) there a few minutes longer. Then he (3) on the edge of the bed and wondered what fishing clothes are like. He finally (4) and dressed and then, after a hasty breakfast, arrived at his friend's door. He found that Jack had awaked early, had (5) at once, and had prepared everything. Two pairs of rubber boots stood on the porch, and two poles with lines (6) beside them. Jack (7) down a basket of lunch just as Don came up. "Hi, pal, you finally woke up? You carry this bait." Each boy took his boots. Jack (8) two poles across his shoulder, and picked up the basket of lunch.

The First Fishing Lesson

When the boys reached the stream, Jack gave Don his first lesson in casting. "You should (1) your arm and toss the line. In this way you (2) the bait lightly on the water," he directed. "Perch and pickerel will take live bait; trout (3) to a fly. (4) still

and hold your line taut so that you will feel the first nibble. You should hook your fish well before you pull him in," Jack added laughingly. "I shall be back in an hour or two with a full basket of trout, I hope. Good luck, Mr. Amateur."

Don Tries to Catch a Fish

"I am on my own," Don thought. Carefully he (1) his arm and practiced with the rod and line. Then he baited his hook. Next he cast a few times and (2) his hook on the exact spot he had chosen. "I'm good," he boasted aloud, and (3) down exactly as Jack had directed. Carefully he held his line taut; intently he watched his bait. Nothing happened. Again and again he cast and (4) his bait in the center of the pool and waited. How long he (5) he did not know. "It will be the same if I (6) down," he thought and he (7) back on the grass. "That's better yet," he mused after he (8) the pole across his knee. "If the fish will rest, I shall too," was his last conscious thought. How long he (9) there he did not know, but suddenly he felt the pole move slightly, then pull across his leg. It brought him to full consciousness and he thought fast. "I shall (10) easily and pull gradually and not lose my fish," he whispered. He drew his line taut, (11) up and peered over the bank. There on his line was a fish, and it was fighting now. He (12) quickly and reeled in his line; he played the fish until he finally drew it from the water and it (13) on the grass beside him.

*PRACTICE B

Here are two exercises that will give you practice in using certain verb forms in your own original sentences.

(1)

Write original sentences containing the following verb forms: (1) present perfect tense of *lie*, (2) future tense of *lie*, (3) past perfect tense of *sit*, (4) future perfect tense of *lay*, (5) present tense of *set*, (6) past tense of *raise*, (7) future tense of *wake*, (8) past tense of *lie*, (9) past perfect tense of *rise*.

(2)

Try your hand at writing a dictation exercise for your classmates in which you use various forms of the verbs discussed in this lesson. Leave blanks for the verb form which the class is to insert. Of course you will be able to write your own exercise completely and correctly.

4. The subject and verb of a sentence must agree in person and number.

Agreement in number

You have learned that nouns, pronouns, and verbs have person and number. The subject and the verb of every sentence must agree in number. That is, if the subject is singular, the verb must be singular; if the subject is plural, the verb must be plural. These sentences illustrate this point.

Singular: *He is* an excellent tennis player.

Plural: *Mary and John are* opponents on the team.

The subjects and the verbs in these sentences agree in number. In *He is an excellent tennis player*, the subject *he* is singular, and *is*, the verb, is also singular. In *Mary and John are opponents on the team*, the compound subject, *Mary and John*, is plural and demands the plural verb *are*.

Agreement of verbs with collective nouns

Notice the italicized subjects and verbs in the following sentences:

1. The *team is waiting* for the signal.
2. The *crowd has enjoyed* the game.
3. A *group of students is congratulating* the winners.

In each of these sentences the subject is a noun that names many of a kind but is singular both in meaning and in form. *Team* names a group of people that act as one person. The

same is true of *crowd* and *group*. Such a noun is a collective noun. Other commonly used collective nouns are: *class*, *club*, *committee*, *company*, *family*, *regiment*, *herd*, *group*, *jury*, *orchestra*, *navy*, *army*, *corps*, *department*, *school*, *squad*, *squadron*, *bevy*.

Sometimes the different members of a group are meant rather than the group as a whole. In that case the noun is not a collective noun, and it is plural in number and not singular. In the following sentences the subjects are plural because the words mean individuals and are not used as collective nouns. Since the subjects are plural, they demand plural verbs.

1. The *committee were* not agreed on the date of the game.
2. The *jury were* divided in their point of view.
3. The *class were* entering the room one at a time.

Read the first part of the article, "Bowling on the Green." As a sample exercise pick out the verb of each sentence. Show how the verb and the subject agree in number.

BOWLING ON THE GREEN

The Spanish Armada

||¹ Have you ever read the story of the destruction of the Spanish Armada? ² The time is 1588. ³ Spain is a strong nation. ⁴ Its fleet is the pride of every Spaniard. ⁵ The people call it the Invincible Armada. ⁶ The Spanish ruler with all his people has one intention. ⁷ Everyone believes that the English navy is a menace. ⁸ It must be destroyed. ⁹ The Spanish Armada has left Spain far behind and is now sailing into the Bristol Channel.

Sir Francis Drake

||¹ Sir Francis Drake with his officers is playing a fascinating game down on the green by the seashore. ² The great leader as well as his followers recognizes the enemy. ³ But each player in the group goes on with the game. ⁴ Finally they finish their playing. ⁵ Then Drake with his men goes aboard his ship.

The Battle

||¹ Are you familiar with the rest of the story? ² The English navy enters into battle with the Spanish Armada. ³ The English navy is successful, and the crippled Spanish navy sails home as best it can. ⁴ What was that fascinating game played by Drake and his companions? ⁵ Drake with his enthusiastic followers was "bowling on the green." ⁶ In England that group of words has been the name of a game all these years.

Expletives

In sentences that begin with *there*, the verb must agree in number with the subject. Notice the verbs in these sentences:

1. There *was* only one girl in the bleachers.
2. There *were* three ninth-graders on the bench.
3. There *goes* the team.

The subject and the predicate of the first sentence are *only one girl was in the bleachers*. As you learned on page 118, *there* is an introductory word in this sentence. When *there* and *it* are introductory words, they are called *expletives*. The subject and the predicate of the second sentence are *three ninth-graders were on the bench*. In the third sentence, *the team goes there*, *team* is a collective noun and demands a singular verb. In this sentence *there* is an adverb. In all sentences beginning with *there* watch carefully the verb you use. It must agree in number with the subject.

Phrases between subject and verb

Notice the italicized subjects and verbs in these sentences:

1. That *row* of seats *was* sold immediately.
2. The *verdict* of the sports fans *was* right.
3. Each *attempt* of all the contestants *was* greeted with enthusiasm.

In all these sentences the subject is singular and the verb is singular; both the subject and the verb agree in number. But notice that a phrase with a plural noun as object of the preposi-

tion comes between the subject and the verb. The phrase *of seats* modifies the subject *row* in *That row of seats was sold immediately*. The plural noun in the phrase has no effect on the number of the subject *row*. Therefore, it has no effect on the verb. In *The verdict of the sports fans was right*, *fans* is the object of the preposition *of* and does not affect the predicate *was*, which must agree with the singular subject *verdict*.

Watch the sentences you form and make the subjects and the verbs agree in number. A singular subject demands a singular verb, and a plural subject demands a plural verb.

Did you notice in the story about bowls how certain word groups with plural nouns in them had no effect on the singular subject and verb? For example, in *The great leader as well as his followers recognizes the enemy*, the subject is *leader* and demands the singular verb *recognizes*. The word group *as well as his followers* is not the subject; instead it is used like the phrase *with his followers*. The plural noun *followers* does not affect the agreement of the subject and verb *he recognizes*.

Agreement of verbs with Indefinite pronouns

Some pronouns are always singular. They are *no one*, *anyone*, *everyone*, *anybody*, *everybody*, *nobody*, *each*, *either*, *neither*. *None* is generally singular also, for it means *no one*. These pronouns are called indefinite pronouns. Some indefinite pronouns are always plural. They are: *all*, *both*, *many*, *several*, *some*.

Notice that singular indefinite pronouns when used as subjects demand singular verbs.

1. *Each* of the boys and girls *was* given a complimentary ticket.
2. *Everyone* who has done his work well *is* permitted to go to the game.

The singular pronoun *each* is the subject of *Each of the boys and girls was given a complimentary ticket*. It demands the sin-

gular verb *was*. The plural nouns in the phrase of *the boys and girls* have no effect on the verb.

Agreement of verbs with compound subjects

Notice the verbs in these sentences:

1. Neither John nor his brothers *were* at the game.
2. Neither the girls nor John *was* at the game.

Whenever a compound subject consists of both a plural and a singular noun, joined by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees with the nearer noun. In the first sentence *brothers* is nearer to *were* than is the word *John*. For that reason, the verb agrees with the plural noun *brothers*. In the second sentence *John* is nearer to *was* than is the word *girls*, and the verb therefore agrees in number with the singular word *John*.

The plural form with "you"

The pronoun *you*, when used as the subject, demands the plural form for the verb. Whether you mean one person or more than one, the correct form is *you are*, *you were*, *you have been*. When you ask a question, use the plural verb forms, as

Are you ready?

Were you there?

Have you heard the news?

Agreement in person

The verb *do* needs special attention in the present tense, third person singular, for verbs must agree with their subjects in person as well as in number. Here are the present forms of the verb *do*:

PRESENT

SINGULAR

1. I do
2. You do
3. He does

PLURAL

1. We do
2. You do
3. They do

The form for the third person singular is *he does*. Suppose you want to add the negative adverb *not*, as *he does not*. Or possibly you want to contract the negative forms. Notice the different verb forms:

PRESENT

SINGULAR

1. I don't (do not)
2. You don't (do not)
3. He doesn't (does not)

PLURAL

1. We don't (do not)
2. You don't (do not)
3. They don't (do not)

Doesn't, the third person singular, is a contraction of *does not*. In a question the form would be *Doesn't he?* *Doesn't* is always a contraction of *does not*. *Don't* is a contraction of *do not*.

Now, as a sample exercise, read the last part of "Bowling on the Green" and show how each verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

The Bowls Team

¹ Bowls is a simple game as far as rules are concerned.

² But lawn bowls is a difficult game to excel in, and only with much practice can anyone become an expert. ³ Athletics are of many types, and one of the most fascinating forms is bowling on the green. ⁴ The team consists of four players, and the links on which a team plays are made so that a group of sixty-four people plays at one time.

Where Bowls Is Played

¹ Lawn bowls is a game you can play at home in your own backyard or on your own community playground. ² Many a park department in cities throughout the United States has equipped a bowling green for the citizens. ³ Bowls is good sport. ⁴ Play a good game of bowls every afternoon, and you'll get plenty of outdoor exercise.

◆ REMEMBER THIS FACT:

A singular verb must agree with a singular subject, and a plural verb must agree with a plural subject.

PRACTICE A

In the following article the verbs have been omitted. Can you supply the correct verbs? On a sheet of paper list the numbers and after each write the correct form of the verb you select from this list: *be, claim, cost, do, earn, enjoy, follow, have, know, learn, need, play, say, sell.*

*A FAVORITE AMERICAN GAME**Golf Fans*

Teams of golfers sometimes (1) against one another. However, every golfer in his past (2) for himself and against himself. A crowd of enthusiastic fans (3) not sit and watch the game. The group of interested spectators of a golf match actually (4) the players from hole to hole. However, everyone in the crowd of watchers generally (5) the golf game thoroughly.

What of Its History?

Who in this class (1) something of the history of golf? One of several places (2) the honor of being its birthplace. The first English golf club began as early as 1600. Some (3) that the Royal and Ancient Golf Club of St. Andrews, the national club of Scotland, began in 1754. There (4) many evidences, we are told, that a very early game of golf was played in Holland and Belgium and that it was called "Kolf" or "Kolbe."

A Golf Champion

Whatever may be its history, we know that a group of Scots (1) the first to form a golf club in the United States in 1888. When two English players (2) defeated by an American in 1913, the verdict of sports fans (3) that golf had become a real game. Bobby Jones with his close followers (4) made news again and again. Nobody defeated him, and every championship title at home and abroad (5) his. All agreed that he with his constant victories (6) invincible.

Be a Golfer Yourself

If you can save money for the necessary equipment, you can (1) the fundamentals of the game. Many a boy who caddies learns while he (2). Every city as well as many villages (3) opportunities for play on a municipal golf course. A. G. Spalding and Bros., Inc., (4) a small booklet of rules which (5) for ten cents. Anyone who is learning to play golf (6) three balls, which (7) fifty cents apiece, a bag which (8) five dollars, and a set of five clubs. Twenty-five dollars (9) enough to pay for the clubs, which with proper care will last a lifetime. Golf is a game for a lifetime, too.

***PRACTICE B**

A few other facts about the agreement of subjects and verbs are given here, and you have a chance to learn those facts by working these exercises.

(1)

Some nouns are always plural in form but singular in meaning. They are: *civics*, *economics*, *mathematics*, *measles*, *mumps*, *news*, *politics*, *physics*.

Write two original sentences in which you use each noun with either the present or the past tense of the verb *be*, or with the present perfect tense of any other verb you may wish to select.

(2)

A few words that come from Latin or Greek have plurals in which other letters than *s* are used as endings. The most common of these words are given on page 96. Use each of those forms in original sentences with either the present or the past form of *be*. If you do not know the meaning of a word, consult your dictionary.

5. Verb forms must be spelled correctly.

Read the following article. You will note that several words, mostly verbs, are italicized. As a sample exercise make four lists, each of which includes all words that are evidently spelled according to the same rule.

MADE IN U.S.A.

A Real American Game

Do you ¹*believe* that you should ²*receive* all the benefits you possibly can from your ³*leisure* time? Certainly every American who is ⁴*desiring* physical fitness ⁵*carries* on some athletic activity regularly, and in time ⁶*achieves* skill in the game of his choice. Everyone who regularly ⁷*plays* softball ⁸*enjoys* the game and is constantly ⁹*improving* his skill. Regular practice will ¹⁰*yield* great skill and good health.

The History of Softball

¹*Review* briefly the history of this game. It sounds ²*weird*, to say the least! It is Thanksgiving Day. An American ³*conceives* the idea of a new game. He has been ⁴*dining* at his club. Both he and his friends want some excitement. How can they ⁵*relieve* the monotony of a long afternoon? He goes into the kitchen and ⁶*spies* a broom. At once he is ⁷*using* it as a bat and is ⁸*procuring* a boxing glove for a ball. Then he cries "Play ball." After an hour or two of the sport, one of the players ⁹*shrieks*, "What a game!" That was the ¹⁰*beginning* of indoor baseball. It all ¹¹*occurred* that simply. Many ¹²*perceived* it could be a popular game. Soon an inventive mind ¹³*befriended* the game and invented a large ball. At first the game was played indoors, but its fans ¹⁴*stopped* that practice and ¹⁵*carried* their game outdoors. Today this all-American game is known as softball.

Two lists you made consist of words with *ie* and *ei*, as *believe*, *receive*, *review*, and *perceive*. The general rule for the spelling

of such words is stated simply in this old jingle that your grandmother learned:

I before *e*
Except after *c*
Or when sounded like *a*
As in *neighbor* and *weigh*.

In a few words *ei* follows a letter that is not *c*. These exceptions are *foreigner*, *neither*, *weird*, *height*, *leisure*.

Another of your lists consists of verb forms ending in *ing*, as *desiring*, *dining*, *improving*. The present part of each of these verbs ends in silent *e*, as *desire*, *dine*, *improve*. When you add the syllable *ing*, which is called a suffix, you drop the silent *e* because the suffix begins with a vowel.

Your third list consists of words like *beginning*, *running*, *stopped*, *occurred*. In these words the final consonant of the present tense is doubled. The rule is this: if a word has one syllable or is accented on the last syllable and ends in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant is doubled before the suffix *ed* or *ing*.

Your final list consists of words whose original forms end in *y*, as *carried* (carry), *spies* (spy), *qualified* (qualify), *tries* (try). Whenever you add the suffix *es* or *ed* to a word ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, change the *y* to *i*. Three exceptions to this rule are *laid*, *paid*, *said*.

◆ REMEMBER THESE SPELLING RULES:

1. In spelling words with "ie" or "ei" use—
 "I" before *"e"*
 Except after *"c"*
 Or when sounded like *"a"*
 As in *"neighbor"* and *"weigh."*
2. Drop silent *"e"* when adding the suffix *"ing."*
3. Change *"y"* to *"i"* when adding the suffix *"ed"* or *"es"* to a word ending in *"y"* preceded by a consonant.

4. When adding the suffix "ing" or "ed," double the final consonant of a one-syllable word or of a word accented on the last syllable if the word ends in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel.

PRACTICE A

(1)

You might use the next article as a spelling lesson and a dictation exercise. The italicized words are the ones whose spelling you should master.

SWIMMING

An Attractive Sport

¹ Do you swim? ² To many people *swimming* is the most attractive of all sports. ³ Is it one of your *leisure*-time activities? ⁴ Swimming probably ranks with *running*, *jumping*, and *throwing* as one of the oldest sports.

Relaxation in Swimming

¹ Have you *tried* this sport? ² Few are *barred* because of age, *weight*, *height*, or health. ³ Doctors know that swimming *yields* rich results in health. ⁴ When you swim, you are *using* all the muscles of your body. ⁵ You will *perceive* that relaxation plays a very important role in the *achievement* of good swimming form. ⁶ Swimming *relieves* nervous tension and strain; indeed, the one who *tries* too hard does not succeed in this sport.

Practice Does the Work

¹ Some people are so *conceited* that they try *learning* alone. ² It is far better if you have a *qualified* instructor. ³ But lessons alone will not make you a swimmer. ⁴ Many have *paid* for lessons and *procured* little benefit. ⁵ Do not *deceive* yourself that money *buys* any skill. ⁶ Someone has *said* that swimming is entirely a matter of breathing correctly, and breathing you do for yourself. ⁷ No one *denies* that smooth co-ordination of breathing, kicking, and arm movement is necessary. ⁸ Only by practice and more practice in

using correct form can you *achieve* this co-ordination; therefore swim whenever and wherever you can, and be sure that you are *practicing* good form.

(2)

Pick out one word which illustrates each rule given in the lesson. Do you find exceptions to the rules?

PRACTICE B

Here are some practice exercises, each of which will do something special for you.

(1)

Write sentences containing the present participle of these verbs: *come, prepare, write, strike, indicate, advance, place, intervene, combine, joke, suppose, wade, oblige, inquire, telephone, live, cure, notice, change*. What rule did you observe?

Suppose you need to write the present participle of *manage, singe, acknowledge*. To keep the sound of *g* soft, you would not drop the final *e*. Write the present participles of these three verbs in sentences. What does Webster's dictionary tell you about the present participle of the verb *judge*?

(2)

Write sentences that contain the past tense and the present participle of these verbs: *snap, skip, swim, hum, dip, ship, refer, prefer*. What rule did you observe?

(3)

Write sentences with the following verbs in the present tense, third person singular: *fly, buy, rely, reply, obey, delay, say*.

What rule did you observe?

* (4)

Make a dictation exercise for your classmates in which you use fifteen words containing *ie* and *ei*. Try to use words not

listed in this lesson. Select some words that are exceptions to the rules for spelling such words. Of course you will know how to spell all the words in your own exercise.

* (5)

On a piece of paper write correctly the words which have omitted letters:

1. In my l—sure time I often play a game with my n—ghbor.
2. Do not dec—ve me about the h—ght of the gymnasium.
3. The ch—f told a w—rd story about the gr—f of a sportsman who did not ach—ve the championship he bel—ved he deserved.
4. An anc—nt rule was that an athlete's w—ght should not be considered.
5. A counterf—t coin was s—zed at the gate.
6. In the r—gn of Queen Elizabeth horseback riding was a necessity, not a sport.
7. He holds the horse's r—ns too tight.
8. The basket for the ball looks somewhat like a s—ve.
9. That game was as difficult as a s—ge.
10. In any game you play, s—ze every advantage you can.

6. Verbs that must be used accurately are "can" and "may"; "bring," "take," "come," and "go"; "learn" and "teach"; "affect" and "effect"; "accept" and "except"; "proceed," "exceed," "precede," and "succeed"; "let" and "leave." Review of verb forms.

* In this unit you have learned the basic facts about verbs. Now you will learn a few more facts about certain verbs, and you will have an opportunity to review all you have learned in previous lessons.

First are the verbs *can* and *may*. These verbs are generally auxiliary verbs, but they may not be used interchangeably, for their meanings are different. Notice how they are used in these two sentences:

1. Mother, *may* I go to the game with you?
2. I am sure that she *can* lift the heavy ball.

May means *to have permission*. In other words, the sentence means: *Do I have permission to (may I) go to the game with you?* *Can* means *to have the ability*. The second sentence means: *I am sure that she has the ability to (she can) lift the heavy ball.*

The past tense of *can* is *could* and the past tense of *may* is *might*.

The preposition *of* is sometimes used inaccurately for the auxiliary verb *have* in such verbs as *could have gone*, *might have gone*, *may have gone*. *Of* is always a preposition; it always introduces a phrase.

Four verbs that have the meaning of *movement to or from a place* should be used accurately. Read these sentences and note the meaning of each italicized verb:

- Bring* me the ball and bat.
Take the ball and bat to him.
Come to me with the ball and bat.
Go there with the ball and bat.

Bring in *Bring me the ball and bat* means *movement toward* the speaker. The idea of *movement toward a place* is given in these sentences: (1) *Bring the book with you*, (2) *Bring your friend*.

In *Take the ball and bat to him* the meaning of *take* is *movement away from a place*. These sentences show how forms of *take* mean *movement away from a place*: *He took his gym suit with him*, *She has taken her mother to the game*.

Come means *movement toward a place*. *Come to me with the ball and bat* means that the person addressed is to come toward the speaker or toward a certain place. *Go* means *movement away*, as *Go there with the ball and bat* means *movement away from a place or away from the speaker*.

Learn and *teach* are two verbs whose meanings are sometimes confused. Notice how they are used in these sentences:

1. Every day I *learn* more about athletics.
2. Every day I *teach* her something about athletics.

Learn means *to get knowledge of*. When someone says, *Every day I learn more about athletics*, the meaning is *Every day I get more knowledge of athletics*. *Teach* means *to give knowledge of or to*. *Every day I teach her something about athletics* means *Every day I give her some knowledge about athletics*.

Study these three sentences:

1. Regular physical exercise *affected* his health noticeably.
2. Regular physical exercise had a good *effect* on his health.
3. Regular physical exercise *effected* a beneficial change in his health.

Affect is always a verb, meaning *to influence*. For example, *affect* in the first sentence gives this meaning: *Regular physical exercise influenced (affected) his health noticeably*. When *effect* is used as a noun it means *result*. It has this meaning: *Regular physical exercise has a good result (effect) on his health*. Generally *effect* is used as a noun.

Sometimes *effect* is a verb. When *effect* is used as a verb, it means *to bring about*. For example, *effected* in the third sentence means *Regular physical exercise brought about (effected) a beneficial change in his health*.

The verb *accept* is sometimes confused with the word *except*. *Accept* means *to take or receive*, as in this sentence: *I accept (take or receive) your challenge*. The preposition *except* means *without* and cannot be used in place of *accept*. The verb *except* means *to leave out*, as *The coach excepted all boys who did not qualify*.

The spelling of one more group of verbs needs attention. These verbs are *exceed*, *proceed*, *precede*, and *succeed*. You

probably understand the meaning of each of these verbs. But you may have difficulty with their spelling. To master their spelling, follow the plan given on page 188. Study these sentences for the meanings of the verbs:

1. *Proceed* with the game. (That is, continue with it, or go ahead with it.)
2. He *exceeds* you in physical endurance. (That is, he surpasses you.)
3. The coach *preceded* the team. (That is, the coach went before the team.)
4. I hope you will *succeed*. (That is, I hope you accomplish whatever you try.)

The verbs *let* and *leave* have different meanings. *Let* means *to allow* or *to permit*, as *Let me go by plane*. *Leave* means *to abandon*, as *Leave the ball in the basket*.

The following article dealing with four popular games has in it many of the verbs discussed in this lesson. Use it as a sample exercise. Read the article and jot down the verbs on a piece of paper. Can you tell why each is used correctly?

FOUR OF A KIND

Paddle Tennis

¹ If tennis is your favorite sport, you can proceed to play the game in several different ways. ² One way demands that you take a paddle with you. ³ This game is paddle tennis. ⁴ The player who wins acclaim in paddle tennis succeeds because he possesses clever footwork, a quick hand, and sharp eyes. ⁵ Anyone may have a snappy game of paddle tennis on the coldest day in winter. ⁶ After a snowstorm you can take out a broom, sweep off the court, let the snow lie round about you, and then you proceed with your brief outdoor exercise that will carry warm blood into your finger tips. ⁷ If you have not yet learned to play paddle tennis, someone can easily teach you the basic rules of the game. ⁸ Before you know it, you will come away a good player. ⁹ Only a real athlete, however, can bring home a championship in paddle tennis.

Squash Tennis

¹ Those who enjoy a game of almost lightning speed may play squash tennis. ² No special force is needed in this game. ³ However, great speed will affect one's success in this form of tennis. ⁴ Endurance will have its effect, too. ⁵ The good player of squash tennis runs back and forth, bounces here and there, jumps from one side to another, and turns about completely. ⁶ An average athlete can learn this game. ⁷ But only a few, with a long reach, lightning footwork, and more than ordinary endurance, can exceed the average player in skill.

Table Tennis

¹ Table tennis is a popular sport that you may play in a secluded spot on a porch or in the yard. ² It was first called ping pong. ³ Almost anyone can play table tennis. ⁴ One needs in this game a special paddle of wood, cork, and pebbly rubber. ⁵ Each player hits the ball alternately. ⁶ Champion swimmers, football experts, and big league baseball men sometimes leave their major sports for a game of table tennis. ⁷ With good players the ball does not stop for any length of time, but goes back and forth indefinitely. ⁸ A really good player must have accuracy and speed.

Lawn Tennis

¹ The fourth tennis game you may select is lawn tennis. ² It was called lawn tennis originally because it was always played on a grassy court. ³ It is no longer played on lawns alone and now is simply called tennis. ⁴ In this country tennis brings fun to about four million people of both sexes and all ages. ⁵ Practically every playground in the United States has good tennis courts, which you may use.

◆ REMEMBER:

1. Every verb has four principal parts: the infinitive or present, past, present participle, and past participle.
2. All verbs are either regular or irregular.
3. Verbs have six tenses: present, past, and future, and present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect.

4. *The future tenses use "shall" or "will," and the perfect tenses use "have" or "had."*
5. *The subject and verb of a sentence must agree in person and number.*
6. *All verb forms must be spelled and used correctly.*

PRACTICE A

Now you have a chance to review all the facts you have learned in this unit.

(1)

The following article has blanks in it. On a sheet of paper write the numbers of the blanks and indicate the verb that should be inserted in each. The verbs will be among those discussed in this lesson and the verbs *be* and *have*.

A WINTER SPORT

Do You Skate?

Do you live where you (1) enjoy ice skating? When you were a child, did you (2) yourself roller skating? This skill (3) you bodily balance and rhythm. Skating on ice rinks (4) a harder skill. Ice skating (5) balance, strength, and endurance. At present one of the most popular of American sports (6) ice skating. Because of artificial ice, this sport (7) be enjoyed in all sections of the country. In fact, many southern states have (8) in building indoor rinks, and their skaters and hockey teams have (9) many a prize for outstanding skill.

The Fastest Game on Earth

When you become a very good ice skater, you (1) organize a group to play hockey. A team of six players (2) necessary for ice hockey. On your team you should (3) only those who (4) skate extremely well. In fact, each member of a hockey six (5) an expert in the fastest game on earth. Canadian men and boys usually (6) all opponents far behind. Their skill in hockey (7) that of any other nation, as three Olympic championships prove.

(2)

In the following article you are to supply the correct verb form, the tense of which is indicated in parentheses. On a sheet of paper write the numbers of the parentheses under each sub-head of the story, and after each number write the correct verb form.

A SKIING TRIP

The Start

¹ (Pres. of *come*) with me and we ² (fut. of *join*) a ski party which ³ (pres. progressive of *go*) for a day's sport on the slopes of the Adirondacks. The party ⁴ (fut. of *leave*) the Grand Central Station early on Sunday morning. Reports ⁵ (pres. of *say*) that snow ⁶ (pres. perfect of *fall*) through the Adirondacks and that the slopes ⁷ (pres. of *be*) in excellent condition.

On the Train

The train ¹ (pres. perfect of *fill*) rapidly. Everyone ² (pres. of *can*) ski and ³ (pres. of *enjoy*) the sport; therefore, the crowd ⁴ (pres. of *include*) both old and young, men and women. There ⁵ (pres. of *come*) a happy family of five. Each in the group ⁶ (pres. progressive of *carry*) his precious skis and his pole. Some ⁷ (pres. progressive of *wear*) their boots; others ⁸ (pres. perfect of *lay*) theirs on the baggage racks above the seats.

*PRACTICE B

Here are two more practice exercises that will increase your knowledge of verbs.

(1)

Notice the italicized verbs in these sentences:

1. They *hung* the picture of the principal in the library.
2. They *hanged* the man because he had committed a terrible crime.

You see that the meaning of *hanged* in *They hanged the man* is *executed by hanging*. The sentence means *They executed the man by hanging*. These are really two verbs. Their principal parts are:

PRESENT	PAST	PRESENT PARTICIPLE	PAST PARTICIPLE
hang (to fasten)	hung	hanging	hung
hang (to execute)	hanged	hanging	hanged

(2)

Try writing another original dictation exercise in which you use twenty of the irregular verbs discussed on pages 207-209 in this unit. Leave blanks for your classmates to use in supplying the proper verb forms correctly spelled.

Books About Sports and Games

These books will give you information on many games and sports.

Boys' and Girls' Book of Outdoor Games, by A. Frederic Collins.

D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1929

Downhill Skiing, by Otto Lang. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1936

Fun in the Backyard, by Arthur Lawson. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, Garden City, New York, 1938

Homemade Games, by Arthur Lawson. J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1934

Play the Game, Edited by Mitchell V. Charnley. The Viking Press, New York, 1931

Sports and Games, by Harold Keith. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, Garden City, New York, 1941

Sport for the Fun of It, by John R. Tunis. A. S. Barnes and Company, New York, 1940

The Book of Sports and Games, by Walter Camp. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, Garden City, New York, 1930

UNIT TEN

The Forms and Uses of Pronouns

Next to verbs, pronouns are probably the most important words in our language. You use them all the time. There are several kinds of pronouns. You use some of them so that you won't have to keep repeating awkwardly the names of the people or things you are talking about. You use others to connect dependent clauses to the rest of a sentence. You use still others to ask questions.

Like verbs, pronouns have different forms, each of which may be used in only certain ways in a sentence. In order to make sure that your meaning is quite clear, you will need to use the right pronoun forms in the right places, in speaking as well as in writing.

The short stories in this unit were written by members of a high-school class in "Personality and Social Relationships." In this class the boys and girls studied problems of behavior at school, at home, and in their various groups. Then each member analyzed his own problems. Some of their studies appear in this unit. Of course each paper had to be revised somewhat in order to give you practice in using pronouns. Naturally, the name of the school and the names of the students have been changed. As they say in novels, "all names herein are entirely fictitious," and if you happen to know someone by a name given here, that is merely a coincidence.

1. Certain personal pronouns are in the nominative case. They are used as the subjects of verbs or as predicate pronouns.

Pronouns as subjects of verbs

Read the following paragraphs and notice that the italicized pronouns are subjects of verbs.

THE NEW CLASS

by John Warden

¹ In September everyone in the ninth grade at Washington Junior High School enrolls in a class called "Personality and Social Relationships." ² *It* seems to me that the class should be called "How to Behave" because its purpose is to help us learn how to live so that *we* can be successful and happy. ³ *I* think that the purpose of the class is a good one, but my friend Jim Harden is inclined to think that it will be a waste of time. ⁴ "You're all wrong," *I* told him. ⁵ "*We* all want a happy life. ⁶ *You* and *I*, Jim, want to be successful architects. ⁷ *We* boys might learn all there is to know about architecture and still be unsuccessful because *we* wouldn't know how to get along with people. ⁸ Unless *you* and ⁹ *I* know how to please our employers and their clients, *we'll* be failures."

Every italicized pronoun refers to some person or thing. For that reason these pronouns are known as *personal* pronouns. Each of the italicized pronouns is the subject of a verb. For example, *I* is the subject of *think* in sentence 3 of the preceding paragraph, and *we* is the subject of *want* in sentence 5. Notice sentence 6 in the same paragraph. In it *you* and *I* are the compound subject of *want*. These forms and the other italicized pronouns are known as nominative case forms.

Number, person, gender, and case of pronouns

The illustrations also show that pronouns of different persons and numbers are used as subjects. You may wish to reread page 217 in which person and number are discussed. *I* is first person, the person speaking, and singular number. *She* is third person, singular number. *We* is first person, plural number.

Personal pronouns have different forms for different uses. These various forms are known as *case*. The following pronouns may be used as subjects and are in the nominative case:

PRONOUNS IN THE NOMINATIVE CASE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
First Person: I	We
Second Person: You	You
Third Person: He, she, it	They

In the third person, singular, there are three forms: *he, she, it*. The pronoun *he* is used when a man or boy is referred to, *she* is used when a woman or girl is meant, and *it* is used when some object is designated. That quality of a noun or pronoun which indicates the sex of the person named or referred to is called gender. There are the feminine, masculine, and neuter genders. Words are of feminine gender if they refer to the female sex, as *Mary, girl, woman, she*. Words are of masculine gender if they refer to the male sex, as, *John, boy, man, he*. An object, which is of neither sex, is of the neuter gender, as *box, desk, car, it*. Sometimes a word includes both masculine and feminine genders, as, *people, crowd, they*. These words are of common gender, unless you know that the *crowd*, or *they*, are all women or all men.

Nouns and pronouns have four characteristics: (1) number, (2) person, (3) gender, (4) case.

Notice the underscored word in this sentence: *He and she are as determined as you and I.* Why is the nominative pronoun *I* used? Of what is it the subject? The sentence is not stated completely. It has two clauses. The independent clause is *He and she are as determined*, and the dependent clause is *as you and I are*. The pronoun *I* is part of the subject *you and I* of the omitted verb *are* in the dependent clause. When a part of a clause is omitted, it is known as an elliptical clause. The subject pronouns are used because *you and I* are the subject of the verb *are* understood.

Predicate pronouns

Pronouns in the nominative case may also be used as predicate pronouns. Since the subject and the predicate pronoun always mean the same person or persons, the two words generally are in the same case. For example, notice the italicized words in these sentences:

1. It was *she* who yelled to the thief.
2. It was *he* who presented the gift.
3. The visitors were *they*.

In each of these sentences the italicized pronoun is a predicate pronoun. Because the predicate pronoun names the subject, the nominative form of the personal pronoun is used.

One pronoun not in the nominative case may now be used as a predicate pronoun. That pronoun is *me* in the expression *It is me*. Once *it is I* was considered the only correct form, but that form seems forced and artificial now. Even Harvard College accepts the expression *It is me*. If that school thinks *it is me* is acceptable, need the rest of us be disturbed? If, however, you want to be a purist in language, you may say *It is I* when someone calls out to you, "Who is it?"

Mastering the use of pronouns

In this connection you must realize that the illustrative practice paragraphs in this exercise and all the others of Unit Ten have far more pronouns in them than one would ever use normally in writing and talking. The reason is that you need repeated exercise in the use of pronouns. It's something like learning to drive a car. Your driving teacher may first want you to learn to shift gears. Back and forth, back and forth, you repeat the action time after time. You know that that is not the way to drive a car. You know that you are practicing so that you can develop a necessary skill. You sit there patiently shifting gears,

back and forth, back and forth. Then, when you start to drive, you may go along very well. But you may clash your gears and have to spend even more time in practice. In this work with pronouns, you are shifting your grammar gears, learning how to use pronouns correctly.

Here is a sample exercise for you to work. Each italicized pronoun is a nominative case form. Why?

UNDERSTANDING OTHERS

by Edith Manners

My greatest problem is that ¹*I* can't get along easily with people. At home my brother Jim and ²*I* get on each other's nerves, and before ³*he* and ⁴*I* know it, ⁵*we* two are saying hateful things and being unpleasant with Mom and Dad. ⁶*They* and ⁷*we* should live together pleasantly, for ⁸*we* all really love one another. But sometimes ⁹*they* don't understand us and what ¹⁰*we* want, and ¹¹*we* don't understand them and their ideas. My brother and ¹²*I* mean to behave so that we make Mom and Dad feel glad ¹³*they* have us. Both ¹⁴*she* and ¹⁵*he* are generous and kind and are so hurt when Jim and ¹⁶*I* are cross. ¹⁷*I* must say that ¹⁸*I* am as bad as ¹⁹*he* and maybe worse. How can ²⁰*we* two learn to behave better at home?

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS ABOUT PRONOUNS:

1. Pronouns have number, person, gender, and case.
2. Gender is masculine, feminine, or neuter.
3. The subject of a verb and the predicate pronoun must be in the nominative case.

PRACTICE A

The numbered blanks in the following paragraph demand correct pronouns. On a sheet of paper write the numbers of the blanks and after each write the pronoun you would insert.

GETTING ALONG WITH BROTHERS AND SISTERS

by Bob Wagner

My sister Mary and (1) were always having differences of opinion about something. First it was the paper—the funny section, of course—then the best chair and the brightest light. But most of all (2) two could not seem to agree about the radio. Both (3) and (4) had favorite programs, and (5) almost never wanted the same one. What's more, (6) both were rather stubborn, and were determined to hear what we wanted. Poor Mother and Father hardly had a chance to tune in on their favorite programs, for (7) and (8) would give up their desires to keep us quiet. Then Mom would say, "Be a gentleman, Bob, and let your sister hear the program she likes." This request always made me angry with my sister. I couldn't see why (9) should always have her way. Finally, one night (10) and (11) got into a battle royal, and while switching the dial back and forth we broke the radio. After that experience Mary and (12) discussed this problem in class. The teacher agreed that Mary should not have more privileges than (13). She suggested that (14) two, with Mom and Dad, make a list of the radio programs (15) all wanted to hear. Whenever there was agreement, that program would go on. Whenever three wanted the same program, we listed it. Then all four of us had an equal number of chances to select other programs. The result was that Mary and (16) no longer have dog and cat fights over the radio, and Dad says (17) two are much pleasanter to live with. I guess both (18) and Mom are happier, and I know Sis and (19) are.

*PRACTICE B

(1)

Can you write a dictation exercise that will make your friends sit up and take notice? Use two pronouns as subjects, two as predicate pronouns, and two as subjects of elliptical clauses.

When you dictate the exercise, leave the blanks for your classmates to fill in. Have them state the reason for each pronoun. Be sure that you require only subject pronouns in the blanks.

(2)

Write eight sentences containing compound subjects consisting either of two pronouns or of one noun and one pronoun. Write seven sentences containing one or two predicate pronouns. What kind of verb must you use in these seven sentences?

2. Pronouns in the objective case must be used as the objects of verbs or prepositions.

Pronouns used as objects

By this time you should know the subject pronouns or the pronouns in the nominative case. The use of object pronouns, those in the objective case, is shown in these sentences:

1. The officers chose *him* and *her*. (direct object of verb)
2. She sent the book to *me*. (object of a preposition)
3. We gave *them* our votes. (indirect object)

You have already studied these three word relationships, that is, the direct object of a verb, the object of a preposition, and the indirect object. For a review turn to Unit Two, pages 35-43, and Unit Four, pages 75-77.

All pronouns used as objects are in the objective case. The following pronouns may be used as objects:

PRONOUNS IN THE OBJECTIVE CASE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
First Person: <i>me</i>	<i>us</i>
Second Person: <i>you</i>	<i>you</i>
Third Person: <i>him, her, it</i>	<i>them</i>

Now read the story that follows. It contains pronouns in the nominative case and pronouns in the objective case, the latter being italicized. As a sample exercise, see if you can tell why each of the italicized pronouns is in the objective case.

The young people who wrote the paragraphs in this lesson did not use all the pronouns that appear here. They have been added to give you exercise in their use.

WE'LL PAY THE DEBT

by Jim Walker

¹ When John and I bought our car, we needed one hundred dollars to finish paying for *it*. ² Our older brother and sister generously lent *us* boys the money when we promised that we would repay *him* and *her* as quickly as possible. ³ Since then everything has gone wrong. ⁴ We hadn't had the car a week before an accident happened to John and *me*. ⁵ It cost fifty dollars to repair the car. ⁶ Dad lent *us* boys the money. ⁷ Next my younger sister borrowed the car, and she and her girl friend had an accident. ⁸ Mom gave *them* the money for that bill, about twenty-five dollars. ⁹ Then one night a mean thief stole our two spotlights for which the family had lent *us* twenty-five dollars. ¹⁰ Now my brother and I are in the "doghouse." The whole family is punishing *him* and *me*. ¹¹ They say that the car has cost *them* one hundred and seventy-five dollars, which is almost as much as John and I have in the car. ¹² They seem to think that the car no longer belongs to *us* boys. ¹³ After giving the matter much thought, John and I have decided to pay all the money we owe *them*, and we shall not use the car until our debts are liquidated. ¹⁴ We both have good afterschool and Saturday jobs; and it won't be long until we are out of debt and the car belongs to *us* boys once more.

Each of the italicized words is the object of a verb or a preposition. For example, in sentence 2 of "We'll Pay the Debt," in the clause *we would repay him and her*, the pronouns *him* and *her* are objects of the verb *would repay*. In sentence 4 of the

same article, in the clause *an accident happened to John and me*, the pronoun *me* is one of the objects of the preposition *to*. In sentence 6, *Dad lent us boys the money*, *us* is the indirect object of *lent*. These illustrations show that certain pronouns may be used as objects, namely, direct objects, indirect objects, and objects of prepositions.

The second object

An element you have not yet studied is illustrated in the sentence *They elected him captain*. The verb *elected* has two objects: one is the pronoun *him* and the second is the noun *captain*. The word *captain* is known as the second object. In this construction, the first and second objects are one and the same person. The verb *appoint* often has a second object, as in this sentence: *We appointed him chairman*. The verb *make*, when it means *elect* or *appoint*, also takes a second object, as, *The students make him their spokesman*.

You will have no difficulty in using one pronoun correctly after such verbs as *elect*, *appoint*, *make*. But suppose the sentence is this: *The class made — and — their leaders*. In both these blanks you must use pronouns in the objective case, as, *The class made him and her their leaders*. The reason for the objective case forms is that they are objects. The second object is the noun *leaders*. The graphic analysis of a sentence containing a second object is shown here:

SENTENCE: The students make him their spokesman.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE	
	(D O)	(2nd O)
students (N)	make (V)	him (Pro) spokesman (N)
the (Adj)		their (Pos Pro)



Sometimes the second object is an adjective as in this sentence:
The book made him famous.

Don't confuse the indirect object with the object after the verb *make*. Notice this sentence: *You will make him a good manager.* The idea is *You will make for him a good manager.* The word *him* is the object of an unexpressed preposition. Notice that *him* and *manager* are not one and the same person.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. Pronouns used as subjects of verbs or as predicate pronouns must be in the nominative case.
2. Pronouns used as objects must be in the objective case.
3. Verbs meaning "elect" or "appoint" often have a second object.

PRACTICE A

In the following paragraph the pronouns are italicized and are numbered. Blanks, in which the proper pronouns should be supplied, are also numbered. On a sheet of paper write all the numbers. After each number state the reason for the italicized pronoun given, or supply the pronoun needed in the blank and state the reason for your selection. (Do not select the second person pronoun *you*.) You can explain the case of a pronoun by writing one of the following: *subject, direct object, object of a preposition, indirect object.*

GETTING ALONG WITH PARENTS

by Jack Stevens

¹I have the best parents in the world. ²They are always kind and generous, and ³they live for my sister and (4) . But there is one continual conflict between (5) and (6) about homework. Mother and Dad argue that ⁷we don't do enough homework to make recommended grades. The argument that Sis and ⁸I put up is that ⁹we do all that is required of (10) and (11) . We're

not lying. ¹³ *She* and ¹⁴ *I* do all the assignments that are given (14) and (15). Then Mom and Dad wonder why ¹⁶ *we* don't get better grades. ¹⁷ *We* haven't yet told (18) and (19) the whole truth, though ²⁰ *we* know it. The fact is that neither Sis nor ²¹ *I* work to our full capacity. When ²² *we* analyzed our problem in class, it dawned on both (23) and (24) that ²⁵ *we* both could study a little more. Probably that would do the trick. It might land ²⁶ *us* better grades and that would make Mother and Father happy. Then the conflict between (27) and (28) would be ended.

*PRACTICE B

You need much practice in using pronouns in the objective case. These exercises will give you an opportunity to have that practice.

(1)

Write four original sentences in which you use two personal pronouns or a noun and a personal pronoun in the first or third person to illustrate each of the following: (a) direct object, (b) indirect object, (c) object of a preposition.

(2)

Write an original paragraph that may be a class dictation exercise in which you use various pronouns in the first and third persons in the objective case. When you dictate your exercise, omit the pronouns. Simply give a number which the pupils will write and after which they will indicate the correct pronoun and the reason for their selection. (Why are you advised to omit the second person pronoun?)

(3)

Write four original sentences in each of which you have a second object following two pronouns.

3. Pronouns in the possessive case do not have an apostrophe: Compound personal pronouns are used in only two ways, intensely or reflexively.

The possessive case of pronouns

You have learned that certain pronouns are nominative case forms and that others are objective case forms. Still other pronouns are possessive case forms.

Whenever a pronoun shows possession, the possessive form is used. Notice, as examples, the underscored pronouns in these sentences: *His attitude toward the class was helpful. The book is hers. Its pages are torn. Are those papers yours?*

This is a list of the personal pronouns in the possessive case.

PRONOUNS IN THE POSSESSIVE CASE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
First Person: my, mine	our, ours
Second Person: your, yours	your, yours
Third Person: his, hers, its	their, theirs

Notice that none of the possessive pronouns uses the apostrophe. *It's* is a contraction of *it is*. The pronoun is *its* without an apostrophe.

You have learned that the possessive noun is used with a gerund. You also use a possessive pronoun with a gerund, as *His singing is always enjoyed at the assemblies. Singing* is a gerund, and the possessive form *his* is used with it.

Compound personal pronouns

Sometimes you may wish to use such pronouns as *myself*, *yourself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, and the plural forms *ourselves*, *yourselves*, and *themselves*. These words, called compound personal pronouns, must be used in only two ways. In the first way

they are used intensively, as, *I myself will do the work*. In this sentence *myself* is used to emphasize or intensify the fact that *I myself* and no one else will do the work. A compound personal pronoun may follow a noun or pronoun as a means of emphasis. Often, however, a compound personal pronoun used as a means of emphasis is placed at the end of a sentence rather than immediately after the noun or pronoun. One might say, *I will do the work myself*. Such a sentence is likely to sound a little less formal, and perhaps a little less egotistical, than if the word *myself* immediately followed *I*.

You may also use compound pronouns reflexively, as, *He hurt himself*. The pronoun *himself* is the direct object and shows that the action of the verb reflects back upon the subject, *he*. A compound personal pronoun may be used reflexively as a direct object or as the object of a preposition. It may also be used reflexively as an indirect object, as in the sentence, *I got myself some new friends*. Generally a compound pronoun should not be used as the subject of a sentence. In such cases use the nominative personal pronoun, as: *My mother and I were invited to the party*. The only correct compound personal pronouns are these:

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS

SINGULAR	PLURAL
First Person: myself	ourselves
Second Person: yourself	yourselves
Third Person: himself, herself, itself	themselves

You have learned all the basic facts about the cases of personal pronouns. As a sample exercise, read the following paragraph and select all the personal and compound personal pronouns. Decide upon the case of each personal pronoun and the reason for using it. Tell why each compound personal pronoun is used.

I SOLVE MY PROBLEM

by Ann Howard

¹ I have always tried to overlook differences of opinion in my friends, but recently the habit of criticism on the part of my friend Lois Himes got me down. ² She and I have been friends for years. ³ I suppose she thought she knew better than I what I should wear and how I should act. ⁴ Anyway, she was critical of everything I possessed and everything I did. ⁵ My clothes don't always suit me, but I myself don't talk about them. ⁶ Lois, however, always told me what she thought of them. ⁷ What she thought was never complimentary. ⁸ I was taking dancing lessons, although I never intended to become a professional dancer. ⁹ Lois often told the girls and me how terrible she thought my dancing was. ¹⁰ For quite a while I overlooked her faultfinding, but at last I decided I must save myself from her continual criticism. ¹¹ One day on the way to school I took it upon myself to tell her that I didn't like her criticism. ¹² I asked her if she herself had ever noticed how critical she was. ¹³ It's a good thing that I mentioned the matter, because ever since she has said nothing mean about my clothes and actions. ¹⁴ Now she and I are better friends than ever.

This preliminary exercise may have helped you to understand the correct use of personal pronouns.

◆ REMEMBER:

1. Pronouns are in the nominative, possessive, or objective case according to their use in the sentence.
2. Compound personal pronouns are used either intensively or reflexively.

PRACTICE A

Read the following article and jot down the numbers. You will see that the italicized pronouns are numbered, and so are the parentheses containing two pronouns from which you are

to choose the correct one. After each number on your paper state the reason for the italicized pronoun given, or supply the pronoun needed in the blank and state the reason for your selection.

GETTING ALONG WITH CLASSMATES

by Pat Carter

Mary was discouraged. A good-hearted but rather plain girl, ¹ *she* had never had much luck with ² *her* boy friends. Now that the man of ³ *her* dreams was in the same class, ⁴ *she* wanted to do something drastic. ⁵ *She* consoled ⁶ *herself* with the fact that ⁷ *he* evidently liked ⁸ *her*. But ⁹ *he* was always hanging around Ella, the prettiest girl in the class. So Mary decided ¹⁰ *she* must take ¹¹ *herself* in hand. First, Mary's mother bought ¹² *her* a "smooth" new dress. Next, ¹³ (she, her) and her mother worked out a new hair-do for Mary. Then Mary invited the boy to ¹⁴ *her* house. ¹⁵ *Her* mother met ¹⁶ *him* at the door. ¹⁷ (He, Him) and ¹⁸ (she, her) chatted a bit and then the mother said that Mary would be down in just a moment. Mary ¹⁹ *herself* did the rest. In tripping lightly down the stairs, ²⁰ *she* neglected to notice the throw rug at the bottom. So Mary came down! ²¹ *She* found ²² *herself* stretched out on the floor. Mary had a fit of giggles right then and there. The boy came to ²³ *her* rescue, and ²⁴ (she, her) and ²⁵ (he, him) had a pleasant evening. Frequently, Mary would have to laugh at ²⁶ *her* landing full length on the floor. She figured that all ²⁷ *she* had left was ²⁸ *her* sense of humor and that ²⁹ (she, her) and the nice boy would never spend an evening together again. But Mary was mistaken. As ³⁰ (she, her) and ³¹ (he, him) said good night, he blurted, "Say, how about ³² (you, your) going to the movie with ³³ *me* next Saturday night? Gosh, ³⁴ *you're* so much more fun than any of those dumb beauties. You've got a sense of humor."

*PRACTICE B

Most students cannot have too much practice in the use of pronoun forms. For that reason work the assignments given here.

(1)

Use each of these pairs of pronouns correctly in original sentences: *you and I*; *she and he*; *I, myself*; *him and her*; *them and us*; *her and me*; *they, themselves*; *they and we*; *you and him*.

* (2)

Now see if you know how to pick out certain pronoun forms by their grammatical name. Write original sentences containing the following personal pronouns: (1) first person plural; (2) third person singular, masculine; (3) third person plural; (4) third person singular, feminine; (5) first person singular; (6) second person singular.

4. Pronouns agree with their antecedents in person and number.

Read the following letter. You will find many personal pronouns italicized. As a sample exercise, account for the use of each.

A LETTER TO MY AUNT

by Don Warner

Dear Aunt Alice,

Here comes the news you said you wanted to have. ¹ I don't blame ² you for wanting to know my grades, since it is those bonds you are buying that will send me to college. ³ We have just received our first marks. Some of mine will please ⁴ you. Some of them embarrass ⁵ me. ⁶ I am enclosing my report card.

In ⁷ our school every pupil in all classes carries ⁸ his report card with ⁹ him on a certain day, and each of the teachers registers ¹⁰ his mark for the student.

One of my teachers has worked out ¹¹ her standards very definitely. At the beginning of the semester ¹² she explains just what each grade in her class means and how ¹³ it can be made. She calls

these criteria. Then just before report card time each pupil grades ¹⁴ *himself*. Whenever a pupil gives ¹⁵ *himself* a lower or a higher grade than Miss Smith thinks ¹⁶ *he* should have, she discusses the matter with ¹⁷ *him*, going over all the grades ¹⁸ *he* has received. I won't tell you how this pupil graded ¹⁹ *himself* because ²⁰ *his* grades are right there on the card, and that's all you want to know.

I am going after each of those not-so-good grades and make ²¹ *it* better next time. A little more study will probably do the trick.

Your embarrassed nephew,
Don

Read carefully these sentences and note especially the italicized words:

1. *Each* of the teachers registers *his* mark for the pupil.
2. *Everybody* thinks *he* should have received a better grade.
3. *Every one* of the pupils is finding fault with at least one of *his* grades.

In *Each of the teachers registers his mark for the pupil*, the indefinite pronoun *each* is the subject of the sentence. It is singular in number, as you learned on page 233. Since *his* refers to *each*, the personal pronoun must also be singular in number. The reason for this agreement in number is that a pronoun always agrees with its antecedent in person and number. The antecedent of a pronoun is the word to which the pronoun refers.

Consider the following sentence: *Everybody thinks he should have received a better grade*. In this sentence, the subject is the singular pronoun *everybody* and it is the antecedent of the pronoun *he*. For that reason *he*, the singular form of the personal pronoun, is used.

The same reason accounts for the use of *his* in this sentence: *Every one of the pupils is finding fault with at least one of his grades*. The singular pronoun *one* is the antecedent of *his*. A pronoun must always agree with its antecedent in person and number.

Do you wonder why *his* is used in *Every pupil in all classes carries his report card*? It is the custom to use a pronoun of masculine gender when the antecedent is common gender. Since *one* is common gender, the pronoun that refers to it is masculine gender.

The next brief article involves all the pronoun forms that you have studied in this unit. As a sample exercise, read the story carefully, picking out each italicized pronoun and accounting for its use.

A MATTER OF IMPORTANCE

by John Shaffer

My teachers and ¹ *I* are usually on friendly speaking terms on all subjects except the troublesome matter of homework. On this ² *we* naturally clash. Practically every one of the pupils thinks ³ *he* has too much work to do. At least that is how the matter impresses my friends and ⁴ *me*. Each of the teachers invariably says that ⁵ *he* ⁶ *himself* should assign more homework. And there ⁷ *we* pupils and the teachers stand. In every case the teacher happens to be the boss, and my friends and ⁸ *I* can't very often tell ⁹ *him* what ¹⁰ *we* think. Consequently, each of the pupils deems ¹¹ *he* is wise when he compromises. A student's compromise consists of letting each teacher have ¹² *his* own way — of course he'd have it anyway. It is ¹³ *he* who has the last word. Anyone knows that not one of the pupils has a chance to get ¹⁴ *his* way on the homework proposition. He either does it or not, and he is smart if he does it. At any rate that's the way the subject looks to my friends and ¹⁵ *me*. You can imagine how much ¹⁶ *my* studying annoys me; but if ¹⁷ *I* make ¹⁸ *myself* any kind of decent record, it's up to ¹⁹ *me* to do the assigned work to the best of ²⁰ *my* ability.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. Pronouns have case: *nominative, possessive, and objective.*
2. Pronouns used as subjects or as predicate pronouns are in the *nominative case.*

3. *Pronouns are in the objective case when they are direct objects, objects of prepositions, or indirect objects.*
4. *Compound personal pronouns are used either intensively or reflexively.*
5. *A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person and number.*

PRACTICE A

The following paragraph contains paired pronouns, in parentheses, from which you are to make a choice. Jot down the numbers of the parentheses in the article. After each number on your paper give the proper one of the two pronouns in parentheses and state the reason for your choice.

THE IMPORTANCE OF CO-OPERATION

by Pat Lawdon

Helen Hanover, a girl in several of my classes, is always in trouble with her teachers. My friends and ¹ (I, me) have tried to discover the cause of Helen's behavior. Each of the other members of the class has ² (his, their) times of misunderstandings, just as everyone does in ³ (his, their) home; but generally things go along in a very friendly way for all of ⁴ (us, we) students. Since Helen is always in bad with one or more teachers, it must be ⁵ (she, her) who is at fault. Helen complains that not one of her teachers has a good reason for ⁶ (him, his) being down on her. Yet it is always evident to my friends and ⁷ (me, I) why Helen is in trouble. In the first place she is very conceited. She thinks she knows more than the teacher does, no matter how complete ⁸ (his, their) training was. She's always saying she'll give ⁹ (him, them) a piece of her mind. Whenever someone in the class asks to have ¹⁰ (his, their) work explained, Helen laughs and under her breath calls ¹¹ (him, them) a "dumbbell." My sister and ¹² (me, I) know that Helen is an only child, and her father thinks she's the cutest thing alive. Her behavior is probably caused by ¹³ (him, his) spoiling her. She has always had her way at home and has never learned to co-operate with others.

***PRACTICE B**

You should know how to use all personal pronouns and compound personal pronouns correctly. In order to have practice with this work, do the following assignments.

(1)

Write original sentences containing the following: (1) *he and she*, (2) *them and us*, (3) *his* with a gerund, (4) *himself*, (5) *you and me*, (6) *Mother and I*, (7) *her* with an indefinite pronoun antecedent, (8) *she herself*, (9) *him and her*, (10) *myself*.

(2)

Write original sentences containing these pronoun forms:

(1) Third person, masculine gender and first person, both singular number, nominative case.

(2) Third person plural and first person plural, objective case.

(3) Third person, masculine gender, singular number, possessive case, modifying a gerund.

(4) Reflexive pronoun, first person, singular number.

(5) Third person, masculine gender, referring to singular indefinite pronoun.

(6) Intensive pronoun, third person, singular number, masculine gender.

(7) Indirect object consisting of two pronouns.

(8) Direct object consisting of two pronouns.

(9) Object of a preposition consisting of two pronouns.

(10) Direct object consisting of two pronouns.

(3)

Write a brief paragraph on any subject you desire. See if you can use each of the personal pronouns at least once and a few compound personal pronouns.

5. Relative pronouns in the nominative case are used as subjects of dependent clauses.

Notice that the italicized words in these sentences are the subjects of dependent clauses:

1. The boys *who* live on Hall Street have a club.
2. The boys choose a game, *which* is popular with everyone.
3. The sponsor of the club is a man *that* is popular with all the boys.

You know from your study of page 142 that *who*, *which*, and *that* are relative pronouns.

Now read the article, "Making Good with the Manager," and notice especially the italicized words. As a sample exercise tell how each is used.

The stories in this section, like others in Unit Ten, were written by real pupils in a real school. You will find more relative pronouns in the paragraphs than the authors had in their writing. Here, again, you are shifting grammar gears, and you need much practice in recognizing and using relative pronouns. That is the reason for the unusual number of relative pronouns in this and the following lessons.

MAKING GOOD WITH THE MANAGER

by Tom Henry

¹ Boys and girls *who* are attending high school are not permitted in many states to work more than four hours a day, *which* is long enough after a strenuous day at school. ² All of us *who* work have to get along with our employer or with the manager of our department. ³ It is he *who* has the responsibility of making our work pay in dollars and cents. ⁴ Employers range in variety from the person *that* is serious and "all business," to the individual *who* is very friendly and almost like a parent. ⁵ My personal experience has always been with managers *who* have been very businesslike. ⁶ Now and then you find a boss *who* is severe, like the one in our five-and-

ten-cent store. ¹He is suspicious of everyone *who* works there. ²But most managers are kind and sympathetic people, *who* appreciate all *that* a young person has to learn when he takes that first job.

The italicized words in the paragraph are pronouns used as subjects of dependent clauses. They are *who*, *which*, and *that*. They are in the nominative case.

These three relative pronouns must be used with their correct meanings. The relative pronoun *who* is used to refer to people, and *which* is used generally to refer to animals and inanimate objects. The relative pronoun *that* is used, as you learned on page 150, in a restrictive way. It may be used to refer to people or animals or things. Sometimes the other relative pronouns are restrictive. It all depends upon their meaning and use.

The word *that* can be used in four different ways. You must be careful not to confuse those uses. In the following sentence *that* is an adjective: *I own that book*. In this sentence, *That is mine*, *that* is a demonstrative pronoun since it points out a specific object and is used in place of the noun that names the object. In *I know that he is coming*, *that* is a subordinate conjunction introducing the noun clause *that he is coming*. The relative pronoun *that* is the subject of the dependent clause in this sentence: *The only reason that was given was my desire to succeed*.

Now read the following paragraph. It contains relative pronouns as subjects of dependent clauses, but they are not italicized. As a sample exercise point out the relative pronouns and the dependent clauses they introduce.

THE CUSTOMER IS ALWAYS RIGHT

by Anna Belle Wright

¹ People who work in stores often have trouble with customers.

² For one reason or another, which is apparently not generally understood, the customer sometimes seems absolutely impossible.

³ Last summer I worked in a store which handles everything from pins to platters. ⁴ I enjoyed the work, which was not too strenuous; and I was paid a fairly good salary, which gave me some extra pin money. ⁵ But I simply could not endure the customers that never seemed to know their minds. ⁶ There was one woman who came in every day and gave me no end of trouble. ⁷ One day, for example, she asked for a hammer. ⁸ After I had shown her the three kinds which were right there before her eyes, she changed her mind and said she wanted an egg beater. ⁹ This change certainly "beat" me. I hunted up our only egg beater, which evidently didn't please her in either color or size. ¹⁰ Another woman, who was a daily customer, asked for a pink eyecup. ¹¹ Now we had all sizes of white eyecups, which interested her, but she would have none of them. ¹² Was there some secret reason that required pink and not white? ¹³ Finally I lost my self-control and blurted out something about "customers' having brains." ¹⁴ It was a statement that should have been left unsaid. ¹⁵ The lady went to the manager, who took the matter up with me. ¹⁶ I expected to be fired for this outburst, which was certainly a mistake. ¹⁷ But the manager, who was a friendly, understanding person, advised me to get along with all customers who come to buy of me. ¹⁸ I accepted his advice, which was given kindly, and since then no one has been able to make me lose my temper. ¹⁹ In fact, I am now on the lookout for the customers that make the craziest requests. ²⁰ They interest me. ²¹ But I don't let them know the amusement that makes me laugh up my sleeve.

◆ REMEMBER THIS IMPORTANT FACT:

The relative pronouns "who," "which," and "that" are in the nominative case and may be the subjects of dependent clauses.

PRACTICE A

You are to decide whether *who*, *which*, or *that* should be used in the numbered blanks in the following article. On a sheet of paper jot down the numbers of the blanks and after each write your selection for each blank. Be able to give the reason for each choice.

GETTING ALONG WITH PEOPLE

by Marion Stokes

During the Christmas holidays last year I worked at the Robertson Department Store. It is one of the largest stores (1) we have in this city. The job was quite an undertaking for me, (2) had never before worked for anyone except my good-natured dad. I was put in the department (3) handles men's handkerchiefs. It was an assignment (4) seemed easy enough. A person (5) has never worked could not imagine the trouble (6) arose every day. On the very first day one of my customers wanted a certain initialed handkerchief, (7) could be sold only in lots of three. I told her that fact, (8) angered her. She insisted and called me a dull and lazy girl, a statement (9) I didn't like. But I held to the rule (10) could not ever be broken. Just then there appeared the manager, (11) was a gentleman in every way. He patiently explained to the customer how we could not separate the contents of the boxes (12) had to be sold complete. Then he did a thing- (13) impressed me. He drew her attention to another group of handkerchiefs, (14) could be sold separately. The customer at once became interested in these handkerchiefs, (15) pleased her more than the others. I learned a valuable lesson, (16) will always be helpful. First, I must never show anger; (17) is always considered a sign of weakness on the part of a saleswoman. Second, I must be very familiar with the stock, (18) I can point out to the customer and so get her attention off the thing she thinks she wants. After that first day I had many problems (19) caused me some anxiety, but I solved them by following the methods (20) the manager had used so successfully.

*PRACTICE B

Develop your ability to use correctly the three relative pronouns discussed in this lesson by writing a dictation exercise for the class. Leave blanks for your classmates to fill in.

6. Relative pronouns in the objective case are used as objects of verbs and objects of prepositions.

Notice the use of *whom* in these sentences:

1. He is a boy *whom* everyone likes.
2. He is the boy *whom* we are looking for.

Each of these sentences contains a dependent clause introduced by a relative pronoun. But that pronoun is not the subject of the verb. In the dependent clause *whom everyone likes*, the pronoun *whom* is the direct object of the verb *likes*. The subject, predicate, and complement are *everyone likes whom*.

In the second sentence the dependent clause is *whom we are looking for*. You can decide upon the use of *whom* by finding the subject and predicate of the clause. They are *we are looking*. The rest of the clause, *for whom*, is a prepositional phrase, and *whom* is the object of the preposition *for*.

Who is the nominative case form, and *whom* is the objective case form.

Now read "Being a Good Neighbor," which follows. The relative pronouns are italicized. How is each used?

BEING A GOOD NEIGHBOR

by Tom Watson

¹ In dealing with our neighbors, *whom* we like very much, we Watsons have adopted a certain policy *that* has generally resulted in friendliness. ² That policy is to mind our own business and to attend as quietly as possible to the problems *that* concern our daily lives. ³ If, by chance, we do something to offend someone *who* is our neighbor, we try to make amends for that act in the most courteous way possible. ⁴ For example, one time I shook our avocado tree, and a large, ripe avocado hit Mr. Pohen, *who* was lying on the grass in his yard next door. ⁵ Of course, Mr. Pohen wasn't at all pleased and took

the matter up with my father, *whom* Mr. Pohen held responsible for the act. ⁶ I told our neighbor it was a mishap *that* I regretted very much. ⁷ But he insisted I was the kind of fellow *who* would do that purposely. ⁸ Mother made a suggestion *which* I acted upon. ⁹ I bought a treat one summer afternoon for all the Pohen kids, *whom* Mr. Pohen adores. ¹⁰ The Pohen youngsters now think I'm tops, and their dad says that I'm the one young person in the neighborhood for *whom* he has any respect. ¹¹ I have to laugh at him because he thinks so highly of me, *whom* he once hated. ¹² Being neighborly in a big city is a problem, but I believe a person *who* wants to be a good neighbor can succeed.

Notice how *whom* is used in these sentences. For example, how is *whom* used in *In dealing with our neighbors, whom we like very much, we Watsons have adopted a certain policy?* The relative pronoun introduces the dependent clause, *whom we like very much*. If you analyze the clause, you find that the subject, predicate, and direct object are *we like whom*. *Whom* is the direct object of the verb *like* and for that reason is in the objective case form.

How is *whom* used in *I am the one young person in the neighborhood whom he has any respect for?* The dependent clause is *whom he has any respect for*. The analysis of this clause shows that the subject, predicate, and direct object are *I am person*, and that *whom* is the object of the preposition *for*. In other words, the dependent clause is *he has any respect for whom*. The reason for the objective form *whom* is that it is the object of the preposition *for*.

Generally in formal written and spoken English, you should try to avoid ending a sentence with a preposition. It is better to end a sentence with a preposition, however, than to make the sentence awkward. In most writing and speaking, it is much more natural to use the form as given in the paragraph. Be sure that you use the objective case of the relative pronoun though the preposition may not immediately precede it.

How are the other relative pronouns in the paragraph used? Since they do not have different forms for the nominative and objective cases, you will make no errors in using them. But can you tell how each is used? You may need to analyze the sentences or the dependent clauses that contain these pronouns.

Sometimes the pronoun that introduces the dependent clause is omitted. Here is an example: *The boys invited the girls they knew best.* The relative pronoun *whom* is omitted. Notice the complete sentence: *The boys invited the girls whom they knew best.* In this sentence the relative pronoun *whom* is the object of the verb *knew*.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. The relative pronoun "who" is in the nominative case and is used as the subject of a dependent clause.
2. The relative pronoun "whom" is in the objective case and is used as the object of a verb or the object of a preposition in a dependent clause.

PRACTICE A

(1) Which relative pronoun would you use in the numbered blanks in the sentences on "Getting Along with Neighbors" and "The Borrowing Neighbor" on pages 277-278? Write the numbers of the blanks on a piece of paper and after each indicate the word you select and the reason for your choice. If you use *who* or *whom*, you must account for the case form as well as for the relative pronoun itself.

(2) What relative pronouns have been omitted but are taken for granted in reading the sentences? Where do they belong? Copy each sentence in which a relative pronoun has been omitted but is taken for granted. Then insert a caret to show where the pronoun belongs and write the proper pronoun above the caret. Account for the case of each one.

GETTING ALONG WITH NEIGHBORS

by Marion Jones

We Joneses like the neighbors (1) we have on both sides of us. They are genial people with (2) we pass the time of day and discuss the weather. More than that we know little of the people (3) live up and down our street. Although we Joneses don't live like hermits, we have found that the less we know about the private lives of the people we have as neighbors the easier it is to get along with them. This theory seems simple enough, but it becomes complex when the neighbors are the Milligons, (4) live across the street from us. Their policy is exactly the opposite from ours. They believe in knowing all they can about anyone (5) they see in the neighborhood. They watch all of us (6) live on the street. Let a newcomer appear, a person (7) the Milligons have never seen, and they are consumed with curiosity. Last year a friend, (8) we had known for years, came to visit us. Mrs. Milligon was at once greatly interested in our guest, (9) in turn, was amused at the excitement (10) she created. From Mrs. Milligon's post at the front window and armed with her trusty telephone, Mrs. Milligon kept everyone (11) she knew informed about the "Woman" (12) was visiting the Joneses. How astonished Mrs. Milligon would have been to know (13) the Woman was. Her name is well known to the thousands of people she entertains weekly over the radio with beautiful music. Mrs. Milligon is never a troublemaker; she simply has a great interest in all the people (14) live on her street.

THE BORROWING NEIGHBOR

by Marion Brown

One kind of neighbor (1) I can't endure is the borrower. There are all kinds of these people (2) borrow anything from a pin to a baby. I don't see why it is that we Browns, to (3) borrowing is almost a disgrace, manage to have neighbors (4) borrow con-

stantly. I have a typewriter. Our next-door neighbor, (5) has no typewriter, came over repeatedly to borrow mine. I didn't care except that she always brought it back dirty. Mother made a good suggestion (6) I took. I decided to do all my homework with my typewriter, (7) had to be kept in a certain condition. Now this borrower goes to Mrs. Short, from (8) she can easily borrow, at least for the time being.

We are going to keep a list of the items (9) are borrowed and have each borrower sign on the proper line. Then when a certain period of time has elapsed, we shall get in touch with those from (10) we want our possessions.

PRACTICE B

Most students need considerable practice in using *who* and *whom* correctly. In order to have extra practice write seven sentences in which you use *who* correctly and seven in which you use *whom* correctly. Try to use them in all the ways in which you have learned a relative pronoun can be used.

7. The relative pronoun *whose* is in the possessive case.

The stories in this lesson were written by members of a football team. They are helpful for anyone who wishes to succeed in school.

In the sentences in "How to Study Successfully" you will find another form of the relative pronoun. It is *whose* and is used as a possessive modifier. In this sentence, for example, *whose* modifies the noun *house*: *Mr. Trent, whose house we rented, has gone to Ecuador.*

Notice that each italicized word is a relative pronoun. Jot down the number of each pronoun on a sheet of paper. After each number explain how the relative pronoun is used. If it is a possessive pronoun, tell what noun it modifies.

HOW TO STUDY SUCCESSFULLY

by Anton Johnson

Our football coach, ¹*who* wants a winning team, has said that he will remove from the team any fellow ²*whose* record falls below a certain point. We are attending a school ³*whose* scholastic record is one of the best in the state. Each of us on the team has a great responsibility. The teachers, ⁴*whose* prime purpose is to maintain the scholastic record of the school, will not pass us because we are on the football team. "Getting by" is an expression ⁵*whose* meaning is not known at our school. The coach has selected the best players in the school. He wants fellows with brains, fellows ⁶*whose* minds are alert and active.

You found another relative pronoun in the above sentences. What is the use of *whose* in this sentence: *He will remove from the team any fellow whose record falls below a certain point?* *Whose* is a relative pronoun that introduces the dependent clause *whose record falls below a certain point*. *Whose* is in the possessive case and is used in place of the word *fellow's*. The antecedent of *whose* is *fellow*.

You have learned that *who* is in the nominative case, *whose* is in the possessive case, and *whom* is in the objective case. The possessive form of all three relative pronouns, *who*, *that*, and *which*, is *whose*.

As a sample exercise, read the following short paragraphs and decide how each italicized relative pronoun is used.

PREPARATION FOR STUDY

by Fred Anthony

First prepare for study. The student on ¹*whom* the coach can depend is the one ²*who* makes a serious business of study. He is one ³*whose* hours for study are regular. Select a quiet place, ⁴*which* has no distractions or interruptions. Don't play the radio, ⁵*whose*

varied programs will certainly take your mind from the work ⁶that you must do. Have at hand all the materials ⁷that you need. The fellow ⁸whom we want on the team is the one ⁹whose mind works when he gets ready for his study hours.

STEPS IN STUDYING

by John Therby

The second step is the study itself, ¹whose importance any fellow surely recognizes. Don't waste time, ²which is precious. The one ³who studies successfully goes over the entire lesson first. He finds the main points ⁴that he must learn. The table of contents, topic headings, and other aids, ⁵which are important, are always noticed by the student ⁶whose mind is alert. Always have a dictionary on your study table. It is a friend without ⁷whom a student in school cannot get along. Write down those points ⁸whose importance is outstanding. Say aloud the facts ⁹that you must remember. The student ¹⁰who is really studying will go over the difficult parts several times.

THE REVIEW

by Fred Fonda

The third step in this study plan is review. The fellow ¹whose object is mastery of the subject does not stop short with his study. Think about the entire lesson, ²which you have been studying. What are the points ³that are most important? What are the points ⁴whose difficulty you have not yet completely mastered? The coach says that often a student ⁵whom we lose from the team is one ⁶who does not make a final review of his lesson.

Were you able to account for the use of each italicized pronoun?

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS ABOUT RELATIVE PRONOUNS:

1. The relative pronouns are "who," "that," and "which." The pronoun "who" refers to people; "which" refers to animals and inanimate objects. The relative pronoun "that" may refer

to people, animals, or inanimate objects; it is generally used restrictively.

2. *The relative pronoun "who" has a nominative case form, "who," and an objective case form, "whom."*
3. *The relative pronoun "whose" is the possessive form of the pronouns "who," "that," and "which."*

PRACTICE A

(1)

In the following paragraph a relative pronoun should be used in each blank. Write on a sheet of paper the numbers of the blanks and indicate which pronoun should be used. Give briefly the reason for your choice.

THE STUDENT'S POINT OF VIEW

by Joe Kenzie

We boys (1) are on the team were talking about the coach, of (2) we are very fond. Our talk was about the plan for study, (3) we had learned, and (4) I myself have honestly tried to follow. I hope the teachers (5) job it is to give the grades can see an improvement in my work. The teacher of (6) I have the greatest fear and (7) test I dread is that new math teacher (8) is in Room 221. He is a fellow (9) brain works so fast that he can't understand us fellows (10) think more slowly and (11) he has in class. Then I decided to tell my story to the coach, (12) can help us if anybody can. "Not a bad idea," said my friend James Matson. "He knows the teachers (13) we have, and he knows us fellows too. Besides, he's a coach (14) you can count on for anything."

(2)

The numbered parentheses in the following story should be replaced by relative pronouns. Jot the numbers of the parentheses down on a sheet of paper under the proper subheadings of the article and after each indicate the relative pronoun you think should be used.

HOW TO TAKE A TEST

The Coach Gives Help

Our faith in the coach (1) we all admired was justified.

"Certainly, James, tell the fellows (2) are worried about exams that I'll tell them all I know."

I have written up his advice and here it is.

"Anyone (3) tries can do something in a test or exam. The student (4) daily work has been kept up to date will probably do much better than the one (5) has slipped along."

Step One

"The first step, (1) is a hard one, is the most important. Plan your studying so far ahead that you do not have to exhaust yourself in last-minute preparation. The fellow (2) can really budget his time is one (3) I thoroughly respect. Studying very late and missing regular meals and recreation (4) you need are not only bad practice but very poor preparation for an examination."

The Second Step

"The second important point (1) I stress is this one. Outline a report (2) you might use, or think through an answer to an essay-type question (3) might be asked. Anyone (4) has given attention to class discussions and (5) mind has been alert can do this. The student (6) I have faith in reviews as he studies. A complete review (7) includes everything in a course is foolish. Review the points (8) importance you know."

What to Do With the Test

"Now suppose that the exam (1) you have been dreading is before you. Don't get nervous; keep cool as in a game. Read over the examination as a whole before you begin to write. You can then plan the time (2) you have and your answers. 'Well planned is half done' is a saying (3) a teacher (4) I respect greatly used to write on the board. Answer first the questions (5) are easiest for you. Then go back to the hard ones (6) will take the most time. See if the outline or report (7) you made will fit into any answer."

The Last Step

“Finally, allow time for reading over your paper. In doing this you may catch mistakes (1) you may have made. Every teacher knows that the student (2) hands in the first paper may not be the one (3) paper is the best. These five rules (4) I have given are really simple. They are not too complicated for any one of you (5) I have on the team. In fact, they are not so complicated as many plays (6) you have pulled off successfully. So go to it. Study; don't worry; and you'll do well.”

PRACTICE B

A pronoun used like the relative pronoun but introducing a question is an interrogative pronoun. In *Whom do you want?* *whom* is an interrogative pronoun. You see that instead of relating to some word in the sentence as a relative pronoun does, *whom* introduces a question and is therefore an interrogative pronoun. *Whose telephone number are you looking for?* is introduced by the interrogative pronoun *whose*. Notice this sentence: *Who's going?* *Who's* is a contraction of the interrogative pronoun *who* and *is*. Do not confuse this contraction with the possessive form *whose*.

You really cannot have too much practice in the use of the forms of *who*. As a means of practice write these sentences: (1) three with the nominative form of *who*; (2) three with the possessive form; (3) three with the objective form as direct objects; (4) three with the objective form as objects of prepositions; (5) five with interrogative pronouns.

8. Review of the forms and uses of pronouns.

In this unit you have learned all the important facts about the forms and uses of personal pronouns and relative pronouns. In this review lesson you will find the different kinds of pronouns used in various ways.

In the exercises you will find more pronouns than the stu-

dents who wrote the articles used in their normal writing. Here again you are shifting grammar gears, and many pronouns have been added so that you can have as much practice as possible with personal and relative pronouns.

In such a sentence as this: *Every one of the boys who are in our club would agree with me*, the antecedent of the pronoun *who* is *boys* and not *one*. For this reason *who* is plural like its antecedent *boys* and demands the plural verb *are*. Ordinarily the antecedent of a pronoun is the first preceding noun. These word groups follow the same rule: *one of the men who are*, *one of the things which are*. That is, *who* agrees in number with *men* and *which* agrees in number with *things*. A relative pronoun always agrees with its antecedent in number and person. Since the relative pronouns are plural and are subjects, they demand plural verbs.

The next article provides you with a sample exercise on the use of personal, relative, and interrogative pronouns. Pick out each personal, relative, and interrogative pronoun and show why each is used.

NEED FOR IMPROVEMENT

by Ned Carter

¹ My classmate Jim Andrews and I represent a certain type of student who goes to this school. ² My using the word "student" is incorrect, for we two are really not students. ³ Jim and I are only average pupils. ⁴ The grades that he and I receive are never very good and never very poor. ⁵ Each of us does his assignments, but he and I don't work very hard on them. ⁶ We seem to be satisfied with less than the best we could do. ⁷ It is a condition which we both should be ashamed of. ⁸ What could we be doing that would be much more beneficial to him and me? ⁹ The attitude which we have had has undoubtedly been wrong because our teacher and our parents are constantly telling us boys the fact about the matter. ¹⁰ Another point that impresses me is that Jim and I are not popular here at school. ¹¹ Our

best friends don't go to this school. ¹² So when people here have parties, they don't invite Jim and me. ¹³ He and I are always left out. ¹⁴ What can we do about this matter? ¹⁵ There is only one thing we can do. ¹⁶ He and I must change completely. ¹⁷ We shall honestly try to make good at school in every way.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS ABOUT PRONOUNS:

1. *Pronouns have number, person, and case.*
2. *A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person and number.*
3. *The case of a pronoun depends upon its use in the sentence.*
4. *Compound personal pronouns are used intensively or reflexively.*

Now for a last practice exercise in which you select correct pronoun forms.

PRACTICE A

In the following article are numbered parentheses with a choice of pronouns. On a sheet of paper write the numbers of the parentheses. After each number write the pronoun you select, and state briefly the reason for your choice.

OVERCOMING HANDICAPS

by Wayne Hoffman

My twin brother and ¹ (I, me) have always had two handicaps: first, our size and second, our stammering. ² (Him, He) and ³ (me, I) can't imagine ⁴ (ourselves, us) as little children. As long as ⁵ (us, we) boys can remember, ⁶ (him, he) and ⁷ (me, I) have always been bigger than anyone ⁸ (whom, who) we played with. Of course ⁹ (him, he) and ¹⁰ (me, I) had each other ¹¹ (who, whom) we could sympathize with. And believe me, ¹² (him, he) and ¹³ (me, I) never told anyone, not even our mother and father, how we felt. Since Wade and ¹⁴ (I, me) have been in high school and successful members of the baseball team, ¹⁵ (us, we) two pay no attention to ¹⁶ (us, our) being noticed because of our size. Now the school kids refer to ¹⁷ (us, we) two as the Hoffman Baseball Giants. That expression inflates our ego, as ¹⁸ (we, us) students have learned in this class;

and gives Wade and ¹⁹ (I, me) a sort of superiority complex. Our second handicap, stammering, is disappearing as ²⁰ (us, we) boys find our place in school activities. Now ²¹ (us, we) two boys are rarely afflicted with a bad case of stammering. ²² (Us, We) both used to have extremely bad tempers and got into many fights. But now both Wade and Wayne have learned that ²³ (them, their) stammering comes less often when they are calm. So ²⁴ (we, us) boys no longer fight with each other or with other kids. In general, life is average or above average for my twin brother and ²⁵ (I, me).

PRACTICE B

The following paragraphs contain italicized pronouns and also paired pronouns or other expressions, in parentheses, from which you are to make a choice. Jot down the numbers on a piece of paper. After each number state the reason for the italicized pronoun given, or select the proper one of the two pronouns in parentheses and state the reason for your choice.

TWO HAPPY PEOPLE

by Hank Towner

Finding Happiness

Almost everyone wants something ¹ (that, which) ² (they don't, he doesn't) have. Instead of crying over ³ (their, his) luck, the well-adjusted person makes something else bring ⁴ (them, him) happiness. I know two people to ⁵ (who, whom) life has been rather cruel, but each of them has found ⁶ (his, their) happiness in something else.

Better Eyesight

The other night Archie Hatman told my friend and ¹ (me, I) that in two months he expects to be the happiest person in the world. In fact, right now I think there is no one in this class happier than ² (he, him). The reason for ³ (him, his) being so happy is that he is going to have an operation on his eyes. He told ⁴ (we, us) fellows ⁵ (who, whom) he was talking to about ⁶ (him,

his) waiting fourteen years for this event, ever since, when he was two years old, he fell downstairs and hurt ⁷ *himself* badly and almost lost his eyesight. You and ⁸ (I, me) normal people can hardly realize how much good eyesight means to Archie. ⁹ " (It's, Its) bound to be successful," says Archie in speaking of the operation.

What a Hobby Accomplished

Betty Brown is one of the members of this class ¹ (who, whom) anyone would say is very happy. Yet Betty's one desire, ² (which, that) is uppermost in her mind, was once the cause of ³ (she, her) being very unhappy. Betty wanted a horse. All she thought about was ⁴ *her* desire to ride a horse of her own. She knew that ⁵ (she, her) having a horse of her own was an impossibility. This thought made ⁶ *her* miserable. Then one day a friend of Betty's sent ⁷ *her* a statuette of a horse. That gift made ⁸ *her* very happy. At that moment she ⁹ *herself* made ¹⁰ *her* collecting of miniature horses her prime hobby. ¹¹ (Who, Whom) could it harm? No one! How much pleasure it would give ¹² *her*! Later she found she enjoyed drawing horses ¹³ (which, who) appeared before her mind's eye. Now Betty is as happy as you or ¹⁴ (me, I). She is a girl ¹⁵ (whom, who) one would think had always been happy.

Books About Human Behavior

If you want to read about personality and human behavior, these books will interest you.

A Boy Grows Up, by Harry C. McKown and Marion LeBron. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1940

A Girl Grows Up, by Ruth Fedder. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1939

Behave Yourself! by Betty Allen and Mitchell Pirie Briggs. J. B. Lippincott Company, Chicago, 1937

Designs for Personality, by Margaret E. Bennett and Harold C. Hand. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1938

First Course in Psychology, by Robert S. Woodworth and Mary R. Sheehan. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1944

Knowing Yourself and Others, by Donald McLean. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1938

Manners Now and Then, by May Belle Van Arsdale and Mary Rebecca Lingenfelter. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1940

Personality Preferred by Elizabeth S. Woodward. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1935

Personality and School, by Walton B. Bliss. Allyn and Bacon, Boston, 1938

The Three Deuces Looking Ahead to High School, by Clifford E. Erickson and Lillian Von Bremer. McKnight & McKnight, Bloomington, Illinois, 1942

This Way, Please, by Eleanor Boykin. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1940

School and Life, by Margaret E. Bennett and Harold C. Hand. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1938

UNIT ELEVEN

Adjectives and Adverbs

How often do you use adjectives and adverbs? Almost everything you say and nearly every sentence you write contain adjectives and adverbs. In Unit Three you learned that adjectives and adverbs give additional meaning to the words they modify. Adjectives and adverbs tell just what something is like or how or where or when something is done. The underscored adjectives and adverbs in this sentence do those two things: *The extremely cold and rigorous climate of the polar zone unquestionably accounts for the fact that the population is very scanty.*

In this unit you study the various forms of adjectives and adverbs and you learn how to use them correctly.

1. Many adjectives and adverbs have three degrees — positive, comparative, and superlative — each of which has its form and use.

Read the article on "Man-Made Geography" and notice the italicized words. What does each do?

MAN-MADE GEOGRAPHY

Geography Is Changing

The ¹*last* thing that man has made is a ²*new* world geography. ³*Indeed* he is ⁴*still* making it. Geography may mean either the ⁵*natural* and ⁶*artificial* features of the earth or man's description of them. Both of these are ⁷*constantly* changing.

Natural Changes

¹ *Natural* changes in the earth itself may not be ² *obvious* at a ³ *casual* glance, but they are taking place ⁴ *steadily*. Rivers become ⁵ *dry* and disappear. Other rivers keep pushing their sources ⁶ *farther* and ⁷ *farther* ⁸ *back* until they drain the headlands of ⁹ *smaller* streams ¹⁰ *near-by* and grow ¹¹ *larger* at their expense.

Changes Made by Man

Man himself ¹ *somewhat* changes the surface of the earth. He digs ² *great* canals to connect seas, rivers, and lakes. He builds ³ *huge* dams to control ⁴ *destructive* floodwaters. He dredges ⁵ *shallow* harbors to make them ⁶ *deeper*.

A New Geography

Man's descriptions of the earth have changed ¹ *even* ² *more* than the earth itself. Man has always liked to describe the world as he knew it, but ³ *ancient* man had only ⁴ *meager* knowledge of the world. As man gained ⁵ *wider* knowledge, he wrote and mapped a ⁶ *new* geography to fit the ⁷ *latest* discoveries. Man's ⁸ *latest* achievements have created a ⁹ *new* kind of geography called ¹⁰ *global*.

Each of the italicized words modifies another word. The adjectives modify nouns. The adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. These facts you learned in Unit Three.

Regular comparison

Notice the italicized adjectives in these sentences:

- (1) Formerly, the distance from Washington to Philadelphia was *long*.
- (2) From London to Rome the distance was *longer*.
- (3) The distance from New York to San Francisco was *longest* of the three.

Three forms of the adjective *long* are used. The first is the word *long*. It describes the air distance between Washington and Philadelphia. In the second sentence *longer* indicates the distance between London and Rome as compared with the distance between New York and Philadelphia. That is, two distances are compared and one is *longer* than the other. In the third sentence a third distance is compared with the two distances already mentioned, and it is the *longest* of the three.

The form of the adjective shows the grade, or degree, of comparison. The adjective *long* indicates one grade or degree of length called the *positive degree*. *Longer* is used when the comparison of two distances is made. It is called the *comparative degree*. When three distances are compared, the adjective *longest* is used. It is called the *superlative degree*.

Many commonly used adjectives have forms that are similar to *long*, *longer*, *longest*. Notice the following list.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

<i>Positive Degree</i> (Only one item is described)	<i>Comparative Degree</i> (Two items are compared)	<i>Superlative Degree</i> (Three or more items are compared)
short	shorter	shortest
small	smaller	smallest
fast	faster	fastest
large	larger	largest
bright	brighter	brightest
new	newer	newest

Do you notice that the positive degree of each of these adjectives has only one syllable? Adjectives and adverbs of one syllable are generally compared by adding *er* to form the comparative degree and *est* to form the superlative degree.

Some adjectives and adverbs have more than one syllable. Notice how the three degrees of the adverb *quickly* are shown in the underscored words: *Once people thought that freight*

went quickly by boat. But it now goes more quickly by train and most quickly by airplane.

The positive degree is *quickly*, which tells how one thing was done, namely, how freight went by boat. The comparative degree *more quickly* is used when we compare the way in which freight goes by train and the way in which it goes by boat. The superlative degree *most quickly* is used when we compare the way in which freight goes by airplane, the third type of transportation, with the way in which it goes by boat and train.

Irregular comparison

When an adjective or an adverb of two or more syllables is compared, *more* is generally used with the positive to make the comparative degree. The superlative degree is usually formed by using *most* with the positive degree. If you wish to show that something has *less* of a quality rather than *more*, you use *less* and *least* in place of *more* and *most*. Notice this example: *The cities of the world are less distant from one another now that airplane travel is common.*

Some adjectives of two syllables are compared by adding *er* and *est* rather than by using *more* and *most*. A few such adjectives are *pretty*, *silly*, *easy*, *gaudy*, *steady*, *filthy*, *narrow*. The forms of *pretty*, for example, are *pretty*, *prettier*, *prettiest* because they sound better.

Use only one form of comparison with an adjective or an adverb. That is, for the comparative degree either add the syllable *er* or use the word *more*, and for the superlative degree either add *est* or use *most*.

Almost all adjectives and adverbs are compared either by adding *er* and *est* or by using *more* and *most*. A few, however, are compared irregularly. That is, different words are used in the three degrees. Notice this list of adjectives and adverbs that are compared irregularly.

IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

Positive Degree	Comparative Degree	Superlative Degree
good or well	better	best
ill or bad	worse	worst
much or many	more	most
little	less	least
(No positive)	former	foremost, first
late	later, latter	latest, last
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest

This sentence contains a comparison: *Airplane travel is more rapid than any other travel.* The comparative degree is used because two things are being compared, (1) airplane travel, and (2) all other kinds of travel. Although the second group includes many kinds of travel, it is considered as only one group.

Recognizing degrees of adjectives and adverbs

The three degrees of adjectives and adverbs are used in the article, "Some Early Maps." As a sample exercise, read it and list all the adjectives and adverbs. In what degree is each?

SOME EARLY MAPS

Man's First Maps

How did the oldest maps come into existence? In ancient times, fearless men sailed out on the uncharted seas that touched their home shores. As sailors went from place to place, they drew pictures of the world as they saw it. Those drawings were the earliest maps of civilized man. Gradually traders visited more and more places, and the geographers of the time added each newly discovered land to their maps. Those coastal trading maps were exceedingly helpful, for when mariners used them even on their longest trading expeditions, the men not only reached their destination but returned home safely with their valuable cargoes.

First Ideas of the World

¹ Early ideas of the world had much in common. ² The early Babylonians thought that the earth was the floor of the largest casket imaginable and that its top or dome was the sky. ³ The center of this world was their loveliest city, Babylon. ⁴ The Egyptians most naturally pictured the world as they saw their country, a shallow, oblong basin with Egypt in the center. ⁵ The Greeks believed that the world was a flat disk surrounded by the widest of all rivers, the impassable Ocean River. ⁶ Greece was, of course, the center of that most remarkable place. ⁷ For hundreds of years the most common conception of geography was a world in which the Mediterranean Sea was the center. ⁸ Gradually man lengthened his trade routes and became acquainted with farther distant lands.

The First World Maps

¹ When man sailed out beyond the known world and later when he sailed around the world, he proved beyond a doubt that the world is round, not flat. ² This most amazing information caused an even more drastic change in maps. ³ The mapmakers had to discard all their older maps. ⁴ Then they drew more accurate maps of the world on which two hemispheres extended north and south and were separated by oceans.

Another Geography

¹ For hundreds of years man sailed the seven seas. ² Then slowly but surely the sailing vessel gave way to the steamship, in which mariners sought the shortest route with the greatest speed. ³ Maps then showed the three great ocean basins of the world, the Pacific, the Indian, and the Atlantic. ⁴ The trade routes that went through those ocean basins had the greatest interest to mapmakers and those who used the maps. ⁵ Voyages around the Horn and the Cape of Good Hope were made less frequently. ⁶ A canal was cut through the Isthmus of Suez and another through the Isthmus of Panama so that trade could travel more rapidly. ⁷ But all travel around the world from the time of the earliest sailing vessels to the days of the most streamlined steamers has always gone in one general direction, east-west or west-east.

Then Came the Airplane

¹ Finally man invented the airplane. ² In the shortest time imaginable, it has brought into existence a new geography. ³ The airplane has now made it possible for man to go around the world in a north-south or south-north direction. ⁴ In this world the newest center is the North Pole, about which lie nearly all the great nations of the globe. ⁵ This new world is one sphere in which distances are shorter than in any of the earlier worlds known by man. ⁶ It is a world in which a man in Washington, D.C., is today only twenty-four hours away from a man in Moscow. ⁷ Tomorrow that distance may be even less.

The form of each adjective and adverb in the article is easy to decide upon. Did you notice that some of the adjectives and adverbs cannot be compared? One such adverb is *always*. If something happens *always*, it cannot happen more or less often than that. Other common adjectives and adverbs that cannot be compared are *level*, *round*, *square*, *perfect*, *faultless*, *absolutely*, *exact*, *quite*, *equal*, *just*, *enough*. These modifiers have *absolute* meanings.

◆ REMEMBER:

1. Many adjectives and adverbs have three degrees: positive, comparative, and superlative.
2. The comparative degree is used when comparing two objects, and the superlative when comparing three or more.
3. One-syllable adjectives and adverbs usually form the comparative by adding "er" and the superlative by adding "est."
4. Adjectives and adverbs of more than one syllable usually form the comparative by using "more" with the positive, and the superlative by using "most." If the meaning demands it, "less" and "least" are used.
5. Some adjectives and adverbs are compared irregularly by using different words in the three degrees.
6. Some adjectives and adverbs have absolute meanings and cannot be compared.

PRACTICE A

(1)

Now for some practice with the three degrees of comparable adjectives. The following article contains numbered parentheses from each of which you are to select the correct adjective. Jot down on a piece of paper the numbers of the parentheses and after each the word you select. Indicate its degree and the reason for your choice; that is, whether one thing is mentioned or two or three things are compared. Should some of the words not be compared? Which ones are they?

SOME FACTS ABOUT MAPS

What Is an Ideal Map?

What do you think is the ¹ (better, best) definition of a map? A ² (common, more common) definition is that a map is a representation, on a flat surface, of the earth or a part of the earth. Possibly a ³ (more, most) satisfactory definition is that a map is a picture or a diagram, which shows the relative size and position of a portion of the earth. What are the four ⁴ (more, most) important qualities of a good map? They are true relative size, true shape; true directions, and true relative distances. The ⁵ (better, best) map is the globe, made to represent exactly the shape and the size of the world with all lands and water areas drawn to ⁶ (a true, the truest) scale and distances and directions truly shown. A globe is ⁷ (more, most) helpful in understanding world-wide affairs in general than in studying ⁸ (smaller, the smallest) parts of the earth in detail. Small portions of the earth can be drawn on a flat surface with ⁹ (less, the least) inaccuracy than ¹⁰ (larger, the largest) portions.

All Maps Lie.

Which sounds ¹ (worse, worst) to you, that something lies or that it is distorted? Whichever you think is ² (less, the least) pleasant, the fact is that all flat maps lie in one way or another. Our earth is a sphere, or nearly so, and it is impossible to

draw the surface of a sphere on a flat surface without errors. The greater the extent of the earth drawn on the flat surface, the ³ (worse, worst) is the distortion. The ⁴ (more, most) common distortions are in size or shape or distance.

(2)

Here is another kind of practice in the correct use of adjectives and adverbs. Read the following article on "Geography Maps" and supply the correct form of the adjective or adverb that is given in parentheses. Under the proper subheadings of the article, jot down the numbers of the parentheses and the correct words.

GEOGRAPHY MAPS

What Is a Geography Map?

Probably ¹ (many) people think of geography maps as place maps which show national boundaries and other political divisions. The ² (detailed) place maps show also the location of mountains, valleys, rivers, lakes, and cities. But there is one type of map which is ³ (helpful) than any other device in studying man and his world and his work. This is the true-area map. It is ⁴ (particularly) known as a geography map. This map does not show ⁵ (true) directions but it is ⁶ (good) than a true-direction map in another way. It shows all areas in their correct proportions. True-area geography maps can show ⁷ (graphically) than charts the distribution of people in certain regions or in the entire world. Other true-area maps depict ⁸ (vividly) than pictures the world's resources, or its climate. A study of such geography maps explains the reasons for the ⁹ (densely) populated regions of the earth. Such a study shows why one nation is ¹⁰ (poor) than other nations and why one is the ¹¹ (rich) of many. A study of these maps shows the ¹² (common) causes of friction between nations, friction that may result in devastating wars.

Resources of the World

One of the ¹ (important) of the true-area maps shows the resources of a region or of the entire world. It shows which crops the soil in those regions produces in the ² (great) amounts. It also shows the earth's ³ (valuable) possessions in the region, minerals that are necessary to civilization in the twentieth century. The number of people who live in any locality probably has a ⁴ (direct) relation to the resources of that place than to any other item. The resources of a land are the ⁵ (important) reason for the occupations of the people who live in that land. Some lands are ⁶ (poor) in resources than many others. The result is that those lands offer ⁷ (few) occupations than all the other lands. Sometimes the occupations are so simple that they demand ⁸ (few) people than other occupations. On the other hand, some lands are ⁹ (rich) in resources and they offer ¹⁰ (great) occupational opportunities for ¹¹ (many) people. The geography of a place is probably ¹² (responsible) for its history than are the people who live in that place.

Here are other practices that will increase your skill in the use of adjectives and adverbs.

PRACTICE B

(1)

From a story in a magazine or a chapter in a book you are reading make a list of ten adjectives and adverbs in the comparative or superlative degrees. Why is each degree used?

* (2)

Make a set of sentences to dictate to the class, in which you leave blanks for the irregularly compared adjectives and adverbs listed on page 293.

2. Adjectives tell what something is like by modifying nouns or by serving as predicate adjectives. Adverbs tell how, when, where, or why, and modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

Correct use of adjectives and abverbs

Notice the italicized words in these sentences:

1. The airplane made a *quick* flight.
2. The airplane made the flight *quickly*.
3. The flight was *quick*.

In a *quick flight* you know that *quick* is an adjective because it modifies a noun. In *made the flight quickly*, *quickly* is an adverb because it tells *how* and modifies the verb *made*. You know, from your study of Unit Three, that adjectives may be used as predicate adjectives to describe the subjects as in the sentence, *The flight was quick*.

Forming adverbs from adjectives

Generally an adverb is formed by adding the syllable *ly* to an adjective. Notice these examples:

Adjectives

real
quiet
careless
careful
common
easy
rapid

Adverbs

really
quietly
carelessly
carefully
commonly
easily
rapidly

In the sentence, *Airplane travel is quite common today*, the word *common* is an adjective used as the predicate adjective after the verb *is*. In this sentence, *This is commonly known as the air age*, the word *commonly* is an adverb which modifies the verb *is known*.

Another pair of sentences is:

1. Air flight is *rapid*.
2. The airplane flew *rapidly*.

Rapid is an adjective used as a predicate adjective to describe the subject. *Rapidly* is an adverb modifying the verb *flew*. An adverb is used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. An adverb cannot be used as a predicate adjective.

When to use predicate adjectives

You have learned that certain verbs besides *be* with all its parts and *seem* and *become* indicate state of being. They are *taste*, *become*, *grow*, *appear*, *smell*, *sound*, *feel*, and *look*. When used to show state of being, each of these verbs is completed by an adjective, not by an adverb. For example, we say *This apple tastes sweet*. The verb has the meaning of *is*: *This apple is sweet*. *Taste* in the original sentence indicates the condition of the apple; and only an adjective can complete *tastes*. In *This rose smells sweet* the verb *smells* means *is*; that is, it states the condition of the subject. Since these verbs show state of being, they are completed by adjectives and not by adverbs. It would be absurd to use the adverb *sweetly* in these sentences.

One verb often used to show state of being is *feel* in such an expression as this: *She feels happy*, meaning *she is happy*. When *feels* is used as a state-of-being verb, it is always completed by an adjective, not by an adverb. Here, again, the adverb would make the sentence absurd. For that reason, *bad* completes the verb in *She feels bad* meaning *she is not well*, or *she is ill*. *Bad* describes the condition of the subject.

When *look* is a verb of being and means *is*, it is completed by an adjective and not by an adverb: *She looks happy* means *she is happy* (according to her appearance). Notice this sentence: *That dress looks well on her*. *Well* means *becoming* and completes a verb of being. In this sentence, *She looks shyly at her audience*, *looks* is not a verb of being but a verb of action and *shyly* is an adverb that describes action.

Do not confuse *good* and *well*. *Good* is always an adjective. *Well* may be either an adjective or an adverb, depending upon its meaning in the sentence. *Well* is an adjective when it means *being in good condition*. Say *I feel well*, not "good" when you wish to give the idea of being in good health. In *He does his work well*, the word *well* is an adverb and indicates how he does his work. *Good* is used to describe nouns, as, *You gave me good advice*. *Good* may also be used as a predicate adjective, as, *She is good*, meaning she is well-behaved or kind. In *This apple tastes good*, the adjective *good* means *pleasant* in its taste.

Know the difference between the adjective *real* and the adverb *really*. *Real* means *genuine*, as, *This diamond is real*. *Really* means *actually*, as, *The cities are really close together*.

A few words are either adjectives or adverbs. The most common are *fast*, *loud*, *quick*, *sure*, *right*, *wrong*, *hard*, *tight*, *close*, *slow*. The words *loud*, *quick*, *sure*, and *slow*, according to Webster's Dictionary, may be used as adverbs in colloquial language, that is, in familiar conversation. But in formal writing and speech these words are used as adjectives.

In order to be certain whether you should use an adjective or an adverb, study the word to see what it does in the sentence. If it modifies a noun, an adjective should be used. If the word completes the verb and describes the subject, it is a predicate adjective. If the word modifies the verb or an adjective or another adverb, the word must be an adverb.

Now, as a sample exercise, read the article "Man Finds Wings" and notice especially the italicized words and account for their use.

Here you will find adjectives and adverbs repeated so that you will see how the two different kinds of words are used. No one's writing would normally have these repetitions or combinations of adjectives and adverbs. But, once again, you are "shifting gears."

MAN FINDS WINGS

Barriers Are Gone!

¹The airplane has *finally* conquered geographical barriers. ²Once the lofty and forbidding Himalayas were *practically* insurmountable. ³Trackless burning deserts were never traversed *successfully* by men. ⁴The frozen wastes of the Arctic and Antarctic were *completely* impassable. ⁵For some three hundred years men have been *increasingly successful* in going around the world in ships. ⁶But until *recently* only one *general* direction was *possible*. ⁷When men thought of round-the-world travel, they thought as Columbus did. ⁸Such travel was in the *usual* east-to-west or west-to-east direction. ⁹With the fairly *recent* development of the airplane another route has become *practical*. ¹⁰It is the north-to-south or south-to-north direction. ¹¹*Possibly* this *complete* change in global travel is the most revolutionary thing that has happened since Columbus sailed to America. ¹²The *final* geographical barrier has been conquered.

Over the Pole!

¹In the past when men gained knowledge of this world, geography was *usually* changed. ²This time is no exception. ³Men's *increasing* use of the airplane and their growing knowledge of the globe have resulted in their making *new* air-age maps. ⁴Men's ability to fly over the Arctic regions has changed geography *greatly*. ⁵Men learned, for example, that the shortest route from Fairbanks, Alaska, to Moscow, Russia, is to fly *directly* over the North Pole. ⁶Look at an air-age map and see how much of the land of the earth lies close to the *extreme* northern regions about the North Pole. ⁷At a glance you realize that air routes over the top of the world will *generally* be the most *direct* between places in North America and in Europe and Asia. ⁸The powers of the world are considering the aspects of the *newly* made geography. ⁹The location of their neighbors has become a problem of *great* importance. ¹⁰Of course, these trans-Arctic relationships have always existed, but never before were they so *extremely* important to all the people of the world.

In order to have more experience in using adjectives and adverbs, take each of the italicized adjectives and use the corresponding adverb in an original sentence. Then take each of the italicized adverbs and use its corresponding adjective in an original sentence.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. *Adjectives are used as modifiers of nouns or as predicate adjectives.*
2. *Adverbs are used as modifiers of verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.*
3. The words "well" and "good," "real" and "really" may not be used interchangeably.

PRACTICE A

Here is an exercise in which you select adjectives or adverbs demanded in formal writing. In some cases you select the correct degree of a modifier; in others you select the correct modifier. On a piece of paper jot down the number of the parentheses and after each number indicate the word you select and the reason for your choice. The paragraphs are a continuation of the article "Man Finds Wings."

Again in this exercise you will find more adjectives and adverbs than anyone would normally use.

*New Routes and Shorter
Distances*

Suppose three United States pilots have to fly ¹ (direct, directly) to Hammerfest, Norway, and be there in the ² (shorter, shortest) time possible. One starts from a ³ (central, centrally) located city in the East; let's say Columbia, South Carolina. Another leaves from a city situated ⁴ (near, nearly) in the center of the United States; it might be Topeka, Kansas. The third pilot goes from Seattle, Washington; ⁵ (farther, farthest) west on the coast. Each pilot travels ⁶ (separate, separately) in an ⁷ (extreme, extremely) powerful plane. No one of them will travel at ⁸ (greater, greatest) speed than the other two. Which

one has to go the ⁹ (greater, greatest) distance? Strange to say, all three should start at the same time, and all three will travel ¹⁰ (approximate, approximately) the same distance. You would think that Columbia lies ¹¹ (nearer, nearest) Hammerfest than Topeka does. But Topeka is actually the ¹² (nearer, nearest) of the two. Almost anyone would say that Seattle on the Pacific coast is ¹³ (farther, farthest) away. But Columbia is actually the ¹⁴ (farther, farthest) of the three. Here is another problem in airplane travel. Suppose two members of our State Department in Washington, D.C., ¹⁵ (unexpected, unexpectedly) receive information that one must go ¹⁶ (immediate, immediately) to Moscow and the other to Rio de Janeiro. Which city is more ¹⁷ (remote, remotely) located from our capital? By plane, as the bird flies, Moscow is but little ¹⁸ (farther, farthest) away than Rio de Janeiro. Or suppose you live in Minneapolis, Minnesota. Can you prove that your city is located ¹⁹ (closer, closest) to every capital in Europe than to the capital of Argentina?

Speed at a Premium

Speed costs something, but it is sometimes worth the cost.

Business transactions are ¹ (frequent, frequently) important enough to demand the speed that only an airplane can provide. Medicines and drugs are sometimes ² (absolute, absolutely) necessary in times of emergency, and no cost is too great to take them where they are needed so ³ (bad, badly). Newspapers, news magazines, and news films are often sent to distant places by plane. Whenever time is the ⁴ (more, most) essential factor, speed is at a premium and the airplane serves its purpose.

PRACTICE B

Here is more practice with adjectives and adverbs. You cannot have too much!

(I)

Write three original sentences in which you use each of the following verbs of being: *feel, taste, become, grow, smell, look*. Complete each verb with a commonly used adjective.

* (2)

Make a dictation exercise in which you use these words as modifiers in formal writing: *sure, surely, slow, slowly, easy, easily, sensible, sensibly, good, well, happy, happily, earnest, earnestly, willing, willingly.*

(3)

Select from the following pairs of words the one that should be used in formal writing:

1. That pilot is (sure, surely) a skillful aviator.
2. I feel (happy, happily) about the contest.
3. The odor from the engine smells (strange, strangely).
4. He walked so (rapid, rapidly) that I could not keep up with him.
5. He never felt (bad, badly) when at a high altitude.
6. They looked (gaudy, gaudily) in their strange costumes.
7. We rested (comfortable, comfortably) in the airplane bunks.
8. Don't look so (sad, sadly).
9. Does your milk taste (sweet, sweetly)?
10. Did you do the problems (good, well)?

Account for the reason for each choice, that is, why you chose the adjective or the adverb.

3. Special care must be used in spelling certain adjectives and adverbs.

Read the paragraphs in the article, "New Maps for Today." In order to give the class a clear idea of the maps that are described in this and the other articles in Unit Eleven, possibly a few members of the class would like to make global maps showing the facts stated in the articles.

As a sample exercise in spelling, make lists of the italicized words that seem to follow the same spelling rule, and then add to each list two other words you know that are spelled similarly.

NEW MAPS FOR TODAY

Where Is the Center?

¹ Polar maps may be centered in either the North Pole or the South Pole. ² They are *generally* centered in the North Pole. ³ One reason for the *noticeable* change from older maps is *simply* this: *practically* three-quarters of the earth's land is in the northern hemisphere. ⁴ Anyone can *easily* see from a North-Pole-centered map that the most powerful nations lie so near together that they are within close flying distance of one another by trans-Arctic air routes. ⁵ Therefore trans-Arctic air routes are *really* far more *advantageous* to us than trans-Antarctic air routes. ⁶ This fact can be *readily* understood by studying a modern polar map. ⁷ Do you think that the use of this knowledge will make a *happier* and *friendlier* world?

Global Maps

¹ A polar map differs *greatly* from the more familiar earlier maps. ² In the older maps one country was *usually* the center. ³ In the polar map no one great country appears in the center. ⁴ So a polar map cannot *possibly* mislead anyone and make him think of any great power as the center of the world. ⁵ It shows all the great powers in relation to one another, very much as the globe does, all *equally* important as far as location is concerned. ⁶ *Probably* this is why a polar-centered map is often called "global." ⁷ A global map is *surely* more *serviceable* for some purposes than other maps are.

Do your lists of italicized words look like these?

I	II	III	IV	V
generally	noticeable	simply	easily	advantageous
practically	serviceable	possibly	readily	
really		surely	happier	
greatly		probably	friendlier	
usually			earlier	
equally				

What other words did you add to each list?

Now let us study the spelling of some common adjectives and adverbs.

The nouns *peace*, *service*, *change*, *notice* become adjectives when the suffix *able* is added to them, as *peaceable*, *serviceable*, *changeable*, *noticeable*. In the nouns the final *e* is silent, but it is retained in the adjectives in order to keep the *c* or *g* sound soft. In the same way and for the same reason, *manageable* is formed from the verb *manage*.

Adjectives which are formed from such nouns as *courage*, *outrage*, *advantage*, add the suffix *ous*, as *courageous*, *outrageous*, *advantageous*. Although the final *e* in *courage* is silent, it is retained so that the *g* sound will be soft. The same fact is true of *outrageous* and *advantageous*.

The rule you learned for dropping final silent *e* in verbs on page 241 does not apply to nouns ending in *ce* and *ge* when they are changed into adjectives with the addition of the suffix *able* or *ous*. Retain silent *e* in all such nouns in order to keep the *c* and *g* sounds soft in the adjectives. In all other words drop final silent *e*, as, *believable*.

You have learned that adverbs are formed from many adjectives simply by adding *ly*, as *generally*, *principally*, *practically*, *usually*, *really*, *finally*. Each of the adjectives ends in *l*, and the suffix added is *ly*. The words must therefore have two *l*'s, the one that ends the adjective and the one in the suffix. The adverb *greatly* has only one *l* because the adjective does not end in *l*.

Silent *e* is generally retained before a suffix beginning with a consonant. The following words illustrate this rule:

care — careful	sure — surely
nice — nicely	time — timely
sincere — sincerely	use — useful

There are two common exceptions to this rule:

due — duly
true — truly

Two adverbs you often use in letters are *sincerely* and *truly*. You will have to memorize the spelling of these two words. Notice their spelling. In one of these two words the silent final *e* of the adjective is dropped, and in one it is retained. Another word to memorize is *duly*. Follow the plan for learning to spell suggested on page 188.

Notice the words *easily*, *readily*, *happier*, *friendlier*, and *earlier*. Whenever an adjective ending in *y* preceded by a consonant has *ly* added to it to form an adverb, *y* is changed to *i* and the suffix is added. For example, *ready* is changed to *readily* and *easy* to *easily*. Whenever the comparative and superlative degrees of an adjective ending in *y* preceded by a consonant are formed by adding *er* and *est*, *y* is changed to *i* and *er* and *est* are then added. For example, *friendly* becomes *friendlier* and *friendliest*.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. When the suffix "able" or "ous" is added to a word ending in "ce" or "ge," the silent "e" is retained to keep the soft sound of "c" or "g."
2. Silent "e" is generally retained before a suffix beginning with a consonant.
3. Two adverbs that do not follow the rule for dropping silent "e" are "duly" and "truly."
4. When adverbs are formed from adjectives ending in "y," "y" is changed to "i" if "y" is preceded by a consonant, and the adverb ending "ly" is added.
5. When the comparative or superlative degrees of adjectives ending in "y" are formed, "y" is changed to "i" if "y" is preceded by a consonant, and "er" or "est" is added.

PRACTICE A

Here is a practice that you can use for dictation. Study the spelling of the words italicized in the following sentences. These paragraphs continue the article, "New Maps for Today."

A Map of Circles

¹ Study *thoughtfully* a pole-centered map. ² It looks *remarkably* like a wheel. ³ The North Pole rather than the South Pole is *usually* the center of the map, the hub of the wheel. ⁴ The meridians of longitude radiate outward. ⁵ They look *especially* like the spokes of the wheel. ⁶ Circles of *steadily* increasing size represent the parallels. ⁷ In *exactly* the center of the map is the Arctic Circle. ⁸ *Immediately* following it is the next major circle, the Tropic of Cancer, *noticeably* larger than the preceding circle. ⁹ The equator, *comparatively* larger in size, is the third circle. ¹⁰ Next is the Tropic of Capricorn, *definitely* larger in size. ¹¹ *Finally*, the outer edge of the map is the South Pole, not a point but a huge circle twice the circumference of the world. ¹² Between each pair of circles are other *intervening* circles which represent other parallels of latitude. ¹³ It is *easier* to understand the relative position of countries on a pole-centered map than on other kinds of maps.

Great-circle Routes

¹ The shortest distance between any two points on the earth is *always* part of a circle which would divide the earth into two equal parts. ² The size of the complete circle is *extremely* large, the circumference of the earth itself. ³ Such a circle is known *widely* as a "great circle." ⁴ A portion of a great circle is *especially* important as the shortest route between two places. ⁵ With the coming of the airplane great-circle routes proved *wonderfully* advantageous to air flight. ⁶ By the great-circle route the most *remotely* located spot on the face of the earth is only 12,450 miles away. ⁷ When an airplane flies *normally* at about 270 miles per hour, that *remotely* located spot can be reached in sixty flying hours. ⁸ When a great-circle route is transferred to most flat maps, it is shown not as a straight line but as a curved one. ⁹ Unless you *completely* understand the meaning of the curved line, you may think the line does not show the shortest distance between two places. ¹⁰ However, the great-circle route is *truly* the shortest distance, the distance the bird and the airplane can fly *easily*.

PRACTICE B

(1)

Can you use the adjectives discussed in this lesson in your own original writing? Try to. Write original sentences in which you use the following words: *courageous, advantageous, outrageous, peaceable, serviceable, changeable, noticeable, finally, usually, practically, valuable, carefully, livable, curable, endurable, measurable, salable, duly, truly, sincerely, prettily, steadily, gaudily, easily*. Also use *manageable* in an original sentence.

Be able to take another student's sentences from dictation and spell these words correctly.

(2)

(a) In original sentences use the adverbs formed from *ready, happy, easy, weary*.

(b) Use in original sentences the comparative and superlative degrees of *lively, early, weary, busy, kindly, healthy*.

4. The following adjectives and adverbs must be used accurately: "some" and "somewhat"; "most" and "almost"; "farther" and "further"; "this" and "that"; "hardly" and "scarcely." Review of adjectives and adverbs.

As a sample exercise, read the following paragraph, noting especially the italicized words. They are modifiers whose meanings must be understood. How would you define each italicized word from the content of the paragraph?

The combinations of these words in this paragraph may not always be what anyone would put into his normal writing. But remember: you are shifting your *grammar gears*!

LAND MASSES AND GREAT OCEANS

¹ *Somewhat* within 5,000 miles of the city of New York is a great land mass that consists of a part of Africa, Europe, and Asia. ² Within 7,500 miles of New York extends that same land mass, and it has on

it nearly all the most important places in the world. ³ Consequently, the cities of Cairo, London, Moscow, Vladivostok are no *farther* away from New York than twenty-five hours in a plane flying at 330 miles an hour. ⁴ What *further* information must one have to realize that the world no longer has two hemispheres on which live people separated by *almost* impassable ocean barriers? ⁵ If you are still *somewhat* skeptical, look at an air-age map and get more of *this* kind of information. ⁶ Possibly, after a study of the map, you will go *further* in your reasoning and say that the world consists of a Northern and Southern Hemisphere rather than an Eastern and Western Hemisphere. ⁷ *These* two kinds of hemispheres do seem to exist. ⁸ In the Northern Hemisphere lies *almost* all the land of the earth. ⁹ At Bering Strait, North America is only *some* slight distance from Asia, about fifty-seven miles. ¹⁰ Then *farther* along are Europe and Africa with comparatively small barriers separating one continent from another. ¹¹ In fact, Europe is not a continent separate from Asia but is *somewhat* like a peninsula on the land mass known as Eurasia, Europe and Asia. ¹² There are *almost* no natural boundaries between Europe and Asia, only low mountains and fairly small seas. ¹³ *These kinds* of barriers do not form continents, and consequently Asia and Europe are really one land mass. ¹⁴ If you will consider this subject still *further*, you will grant that all the land that radiates out from the North Pole is essentially one great land mass.

A few of the adjectives and adverbs in the preceding paragraph may need some explanation.

"Some" and "somewhat"

The two words, *some* and *somewhat*, may not be used interchangeably. Notice how they are used in these sentences:

1. The pilot is feeling *somewhat* better.
2. I should like *some* pictures of our air trip.

Somewhat is an adverb in the sentence, *The pilot is feeling somewhat better*. It modifies the adjective *better* by telling how much. *Some* is an adjective that modifies the noun *pictures*. Always use these words with their exact meanings.

"Most" and "almost"

Read these two sentences and notice the italicized words:

1. *Most* people have been in an airplane.
2. *Almost* everyone enjoys airplane travel.

Most is an adjective that modifies the noun *people*. *Almost* means *nearly*. *Almost* modifies the indefinite pronoun *everyone*. Since *everyone* is really made up of two words, the pronoun *one* and the adjective *every*, the adverb *almost* must modify the adjective *every*, for only an adverb can modify an adjective. It is for this reason that the adverb *almost*, not the adjective *most*, is used with the indefinite pronouns *everyone*, *everybody*, *anybody*, *nobody*, and *no one*. For the same reason *almost* modifies the adjective *all*, in *almost all people*.

Almost and not *most* must be used to modify verbs:

1. The engineer *almost* reached his destination.
2. The pilot *almost* lost his plane.

"Farther" and "further," "this" and "that"

Two adverbs whose meanings are not identical are *farther* and *further*. *Farther* means actual physical distance or space, as, *Jo flew farther than John*. *Further* generally has the idea of time or degree in it, as *He studied the subject further*. *Further* may also be used as an adjective as shown in "Land Masses and Great Oceans."

The adjectives *this* and *that* are unlike all other adjectives in that they have plural forms, *these* and *those*. The singular forms must modify singular nouns, and the plural forms must modify plural nouns. Two nouns are commonly used with these adjectives: *sort* and *kind*. When you use the singular form of a noun, use the singular form of the adjective. Notice the following examples.

SINGULAR

1. *This kind* of travel gives me a thrill.
2. *That sort* of travel is not so popular now.

PLURAL

1. Have you ever met *those kinds* of travelers?
2. Do they wear *those sorts* of shoes?

Say over and over aloud to yourself these combinations:

SINGULAR

PLURAL

this kind	this sort	these kinds	these sorts
that kind	that sort	those kinds	those sorts

"Hardly" and "scarcely"

The adverbs *hardly* and *scarcely* always give a negative idea as *no* and *not* do. Since it is a rule in our language that two negatives should usually not come in the same sentence, *not* and *no* must not be used in a sentence with *scarcely* or *hardly* when a negative meaning is intended. For this reason no verb contracted with *not* can be used with *scarcely* or *hardly*. For example, *couldn't* is a contraction of *could not* and so *couldn't* cannot be used in a sentence with *scarcely* or *hardly* or *no*. Here are illustrations of the correct use of *scarcely* and *hardly* and *no*:

1. I could scarcely hear the man's voice.
2. We could go no farther that night.
3. The pilot could hardly see the landing field through the fog.

You have now studied the most important grammatical facts about adjectives and adverbs.

◆ REMEMBER:

1. Many adjectives have three forms, positive, comparative, and superlative degrees. These degrees are formed by adding "er" and "est" to the positive degree or by using "more" and "most" or "less" and "least." A few adjectives and adverbs are compared irregularly with different words for each degree.

2. *When adverbs are formed from adjectives ending in "y," "y" is changed to "i" if "y" is preceded by a consonant, and the adverb ending "ly" is added. Words ending in "ce" or "ge" retain the silent "e" when the suffix "ous" or "able" is added to form the adjective.*
3. *An adverb must not be used as a predicate adjective.*
4. *Some adjectives and adverbs have absolute meanings and cannot be compared.*
5. *The words "most," "almost"; "farther," "further"; "some," "somewhat"; "this," "these" have different meanings and cannot be used interchangeably.*
6. *Generally, double negatives should not appear in the same sentence.*

PRACTICE A

Here is a review practice that tests your knowledge of the correct use of adjectives and adverbs. You will find in the following paragraphs parentheses containing choices of words or a single word. Where there is a choice, you are to select the correct word. Where only one word is given, you are to use the correct form or degree of that word. On a piece of paper jot down the number of the parentheses and after each write the word you choose or use. Note the reason for each word you write.

GLOBAL-WORLD PROBLEMS

Distribution of People Throughout the World

On this global world people are distributed quite ¹ (unequal, unequally). ² (Near, Nearly) half of the world has ³ (few) than two persons to the square mile. Africa is three times ⁴ (large) than Europe and has ⁵ (most, almost) one-third the population of Europe. Asia has ⁶ (little) than one-third the land of the world and ⁷ (some, somewhat) more than one-half the population of the world. Four areas are known as the

⁸ (popular) places on earth for man to live in. Asia has two of these ⁹ (especial) crowded regions, Europe has the third, and North America has the fourth. These four areas of ¹⁰ (dense) population are all in the north temperate zone. All four have an average of ¹¹ (some, somewhat) more than 125 people to the square mile. These areas have two-thirds of the population of the world, but only one-tenth of the land surface. Why do men crowd together so ¹² (dense) into such a ¹³ (surprising) small part of the world? One reason is that those places can provide ¹⁴ (many) people with occupations and homes than other regions. These are the ¹⁵ (busy) places in the world but not ¹⁶ (necessary) the ¹⁷ (friendly) or the ¹⁸ (healthy).

Farm Products and World Trade

The ¹ (important) business in the world is farming. It is the world's ² (big) business.

It has ³ (more, the most) workers than any other business. The human family the world over has learned ⁴ (remarkable) ⁵ (good, well) to adapt the land where it lives to farming. The farmers in China and India cannot ⁶ (possible) raise wheat in their hot, humid climate, but they can raise rice ⁷ (successful) and it serves for them the same purpose that wheat serves us. The North American farmer cannot raise coffee, but the farmer of Brazil does this ⁸ (especial) ⁹ (good, well). Not all people of the world want coffee so ¹⁰ (bad, badly) as we Americans do. The United States alone consumes ¹¹ (almost, most) one-half of all the world's coffee, and Brazil raises about two-thirds of the world's coffee. So we buy coffee from Brazil in great quantities and sell the Brazilians machinery, which we produce ¹² (equal) ¹³ (good, well). In this way the trade of the world is carried on ¹⁴ (advantage) for all concerned. If the nations of the world are to be ¹⁵ (mutual) ¹⁶ (service), trade cannot be a one-sided affair where one nation does all the buying and no selling. If we expect to sell much to a nation, we must buy ¹⁷ (liberal) from that nation. On the trade of the world depends ¹⁸ (large) the welfare of the world. This is a ¹⁹ (farther, further) reason for looking at a nation's problems from the viewpoint of a global world. We all hope that the ²⁰ (mutual) beneficial plan of buying and selling will result in a ²¹ (kindly) and ²² (friendly) world.

PRACTICE B

(1)

Write two illustrations each of the singular words *kind* and *sort* modified by a singular adjective. Write four illustrations each of the plural words *kinds* and *sorts* modified by a plural adjective.

(2)

Write in original sentences these words used in the comparative and superlative degrees: *good, much, ill, some, well* (adverb and adjective), *steady, studiously, little, courageous, cheaply*.

(3)

What one fact is common to the words in each of the following groups?

- (a) round, square, perfect, even
- (b) taller, smaller, quieter, more sincerely
- (c) highest, cheapest, most satisfactory, least
- (d) ill, first, worse, most

(4)

Write these words in original sentences which make clear their meanings: *some, somewhat; farther, further; most, almost*.

(5)

The pronoun *them* is never used in place of the adjectives *those* to modify a noun. For example, you say *I have seen those places*.

Write four sentences in which you use *those* and *them* correctly.

(6)

Write six original sentences in which you use *scarcely*, *hardly*, and *no* as adverb modifiers. Use the auxiliary verb *could* with each main verb you select.

Books About the Air Age

These books show different kinds of maps and will tell you more about the geography of the air age.

Atlas of World Review, by Clifford H. MacFadden. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1940

Hammond's New Era Atlas of the World. C. S. Hammond & Company, Inc., New York, 1942

Human Geography in the Air Age, by George T. Renner. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1942

Maps and How to Understand Them. Consolidated Vultee Aircraft Corporation, P. O. Box 157, New York, N. Y., 1943

New World Horizons, Geography for the Air Age, by Chester H. Lawrence and Ray Ramsey. Silver, Burdett & Company, New York, 1942

Social Studies for the Air Age, by Hall Bartlett. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1942

UNIT TWELVE

More About Verbs

You have already learned the fundamental facts about verbs. But there are still other facts that you have not yet studied about verbs, and the purpose of this unit is to present those facts.

1. Verbs are either transitive or intransitive. A transitive verb is one that has a receiver of the action in either the object or the subject.

Notice the verbs in the following sentences:

1. That class makes plastic jewelry.
2. The teacher of the class has gone out.
3. This bracelet is plastic.

The verbs *makes* and *has gone* are action verbs. The action of the verb *makes* is received by the noun *jewelry*. Whenever the action of a verb is received by some noun or pronoun, that verb is known as a transitive verb. The word *transitive* comes from two Latin words, *trans* and *eo*, meaning *to go across*. The action in *makes* goes across from *class*, the subject, to *jewelry*, the object. Generally, the object receives the action of the verb. Every verb with an object is a transitive verb. Sometimes, however, the subject receives the action of the verb. Then also the verb is a transitive verb.

In *The teacher of the class has gone out*, the verb *has gone* shows action, but nothing receives the action. Consequently, the verb *has gone* is intransitive. To be transitive, a verb must have

a receiver of the action. In *This bracelet is plastic*, the verb *is* does not show action and therefore cannot possibly be transitive. All forms of the verb *to be* are intransitive. So are all other verbs of being or appearing, as *seem*, *smell*, *taste*, *become*, *grow* (when it means *become*). The verbs *smell*, *taste*, and *grow* are transitive when they show action and have a receiver of the action.

In deciding whether a verb is transitive, or intransitive, you must first see whether the verb shows action or not. If it does not show action, the verb is intransitive. If it shows action and nothing receives the action, the verb is intransitive. If, however, the verb shows action and someone or something receives the action, the verb is transitive.

As a sample exercise, read the following article and pick out the transitive verbs. Disregard all verbs except simple predicates.

SOMETHING NEW UNDER THE SUN

Was King Solomon Right?

¹ A long time ago old King Solomon said, "There is nothing new under the sun." ² Possibly he was right at that time. ³ But in the last few decades chemists have made something that is new. ⁴ They have created materials that are unlike anything that ever existed before. ⁵ Chemists can make these new materials but cannot change them back into the original substances. ⁶ These materials are plastics.

The First Plastic — Celluloid

¹ A printer named John Wesley Hyatt made the first plastic in 1869. ² He had entered a contest to find a material that was cheaper than ivory for billiard balls. ³ Hyatt put nitric acid on cotton linters (the short fibers that cling to cotton seeds) and wood pulp. ⁴ Then he added camphor and produced the plastic called Celluloid. ⁵ There is no record that Celluloid billiard balls ever became popular. ⁶ But manufacturers molded Celluloid into combs, toothbrush handles, photographic film, and hundreds of other articles. ⁷ The Celluloid of those days did, however, burn rapidly if a flame touched

it. ⁸ So chemists worked on other plastics that were not so flammable as Celluloid.

Bakelite

¹ In 1909, Dr. Leo H. Baekeland, a Belgian chemist who had lived in the United States for a number of years, made the plastic known as Bakelite. ² This was, the first plastic that would not lose its shape or warp when it became hot. ³ Today, we have plastics that are more transparent than glass, lighter than wood or aluminum, and tough enough to stop bullets. ⁴ Other plastics are as thin as tissue and as fine as silk.

An Infant Industry

¹ What are some of the plastics you see and use daily? ² Do you recognize plastic articles? ³ Probably the steering wheel on your automobile is plastic. ⁴ The film in your camera is plastic. ⁵ Most girls carry compacts. ⁶ They may be plastic. ⁷ Almost everyone in the class uses a telephone. ⁸ Different plastics make the ear-piece and the one-piece case. ⁹ Many pieces of costume jewelry are plastic. ¹⁰ The list of plastics you use daily would fill a book!

Probably you found it easy to list the transitive verbs, for in this article every transitive verb has an object. In other words, each of the transitive verbs is an action verb with an object. Transitive verbs do not always have objects, for the subject may be the receiver of the action. You will learn later about this use of transitive verbs.

◆ REMEMBER:

A transitive verb is a verb that shows action which is received by someone or something. Either the direct object or the subject receives the action of a transitive verb.

PRACTICE A

Here are some practice exercises that will help you to have more knowledge of verbs.

Read the following paragraphs and on a sheet of paper jot down the numbers of the sentences and list the transitive verbs in each sentence. After every verb write the word that receives the action. If there is no transitive verb in a sentence write *none* after the number of that sentence. Disregard all verbs except the simple predicates.

NEW SOURCES OF MATERIALS

Valuable "Nuisance" — Coal Tar

¹ For many years, chemists have taken nature's products, coal, petroleum, and wood, apart and put them back together again to form new materials. ² Research workers have made important discoveries regarding these products. ³ When one heats soft coal in an enclosed vessel, it gives off gases and leaves coke and coal tar. ⁴ Industry uses coke in steelmaking. ⁵ At first manufacturers thought that the coal tar was a nuisance. ⁶ Chemists eliminated the coal tar. ⁷ But coal tar contains valuable hydrocarbons (compounds of hydrogen and carbon). ⁸ Coal tar is now the basis of the great chemical industries of dyes, modern explosives, disinfectants, perfumes, drugs, and plastics.

Petroleum

¹ Decaying plants and animals that lived millions of years ago were the origin of petroleum as well as coal. ² Like coal, petroleum contains hydrocarbons. ³ Thousands of materials and products we use today contain hydrocarbons. ⁴ Chemists have taken the hydrocarbons of petroleum, rearranged them, and made an amazing number of useful materials. ⁵ At one time the oil refinery produced chiefly lubricants for machinery, gasoline, and fuel oil. ⁶ Now the refinery is a chemical plant that produces "tailor-made" high-octane gasoline for powerful airplane engines, and chemicals used in dyes, explosives, foods, medicines, and plastics.

PRACTICE B

These exercises will give you more practice with transitive verbs.

(1)

To see whether you can use transitive verbs, write ten sentences containing verbs that are transitive. Underline the verb and check (✓) the word that receives the action.

(2)

On pages 223-228 you studied these pairs of verbs: *lie, lay; rise, raise; sit, set*. You learned that one verb in each set must always have an object and that the other verb must never have an object or a receiver of the action. This statement means that one verb is always transitive and the other is always intransitive. For example, *lie* and its various forms may never have an object. It is therefore intransitive. Notice this list:

Transitive Verbs

lay
raise
set

Intransitive Verbs

lie
rise
sit

Turn to page 228. Jot down on a piece of paper the numbers of the verbs in the article on pages 228-229. After each number indicate whether the verb is transitive or intransitive.

2. Every transitive verb has either active or passive voice, active if the subject performs the action and passive if the subject receives the action.

Notice the difference in the following sentences:

1. Scientists produced plastics.
2. Plastics were produced by scientists.

Both sentences are more or less the same. In one the subject *scientists* names the doer of the action, and in the other the subject *plastics* names the receiver of the action.

When the subject names the doer of the action, the verb is active. When the subject names the receiver of the action, the verb is passive.

The property of a verb which shows whether the subject is the doer or the receiver of the action is called *voice*. Transitive verbs may have either active or passive voice. Only transitive verbs have voice.

The active voice is made by using the proper tense form in the different tenses, as, *I see the scientist*. These are the active forms of *see* in the first person, singular:

ACTIVE VOICE

Present: I see

Past: I saw

Future: I shall see

Present Perfect: I have seen

Past Perfect: I had seen

Future Perfect: I shall have seen

Now suppose you wish to make the statement, *I see the scientist*, passive. *Scientist*, the object of the active verb, becomes the subject of the passive verb, since the subject of a passive verb is the receiver of the action. *I*, the subject of the active verb, becomes the object of a preposition, as: *The scientist was seen by me*. The active verb form is changed to the past participle preceded by the correct tense form of *be*.

These are the passive forms of *see* in the first person, singular:

PASSIVE VOICE

Present: I am seen

Past: I was seen

Future: I shall be seen

Present Perfect: I have been seen

Past Perfect: I had been seen

Future Perfect: I shall have been seen

The present and past tenses of the verb *be* are given on page 216. The perfect tenses of all verbs in the passive voice use the proper auxiliaries for the perfect tenses and the past participle of *be*, as *have been* for the present perfect, *had been* for the past perfect, and *shall* or *will have been* for the future perfect.

Read these sets of sentences with active and passive verbs:

(1)

Active Voice: Several manufacturers have made beautiful plastic jewelry.

Passive Voice: Beautiful plastic jewelry has been made by several manufacturers.

(2)

Active Voice: I shall buy a plastic bracelet.

Passive Voice: A plastic bracelet will be bought by me.

(3)

Active Voice: Chemical industries are using plastic pipes.

Passive Voice: Plastic pipes are being used by chemical industries.

When you read the sentences, did you notice how much more direct and effective the active voice is? The passive voice often makes a sentence weak. Use the active voice whenever you can.

The following article has several transitive verbs in it. Decide which of these transitive verbs are active and which are passive. Disregard all verbs except simple predicates.

NECESSITY IS THE MOTHER OF INVENTION

Products of the Tree

Chemists tell us that a tree, which is vegetable matter, can produce as many valuable products as coal or petroleum.

² Wood is a combination of cellulose, long hair-like fibers; a small amount of sugar; and lignin, a resin or natural glue that holds the fibers of cellulose together. ³ Cellulose makes Cellophane and rayon

for clothing. ⁴ That piece of candy you ate this morning probably was wrapped in Cellophane. ⁵ Other plastics as well as paper are made of cellulose. ⁶ Chemists must learn a lot about lignin. ⁷ When they discover its secrets, lignin will probably be more important than coal tar as a raw material for the manufacture of numerous products. ⁸ Already, lignin is the source of vanillin in vanilla extract. ⁹ It likewise is used as a binding for plywood. ¹⁰ It serves as a tanning agent for leather, and it makes a good low-cost plastic. ¹¹ Perhaps you will be the chemist who discovers the secrets of lignin.

Wood Made to Order

¹ A new chemical process has been developed that changes wood into a new material of any desired hardness. ² Soft poplar, for example, becomes harder than maple. ³ And maple can, in turn, be made harder than ebony. ⁴ The chemicals which are used in this process are made from coal, air, and water. ⁵ They are forced into the wood by great pressure. ⁶ Acids in the wood start the chemical reaction which produces a plastic-like material. ⁷ The chemical change takes place throughout the wood, not just on its surface. ⁸ The wood may be colored by adding a dye to the chemicals which are used in the process. ⁹ Light-colored pine may be made to look like cherry, mahogany, or rosewood. ¹⁰ Or it may be colored a brilliant red, green, or purple. ¹¹ The chemical treatment makes wood strong enough to be used as a substitute for steel in certain machinery parts. ¹² Furniture made of this wood will not swell, shrink, or warp.

"Wood-and-Glue Sandwiches"

¹ Plywood is made of thin strips of wood, which are glued together with synthetic (man-made) resins. ² It will be used widely in the construction of homes. ³ These "wood-and-glue sandwiches" are stronger than steel per unit of weight. ⁴ One housing company uses a plywood and plastic panel that can stand almost any kind of treatment. ⁵ Floodwaters, blows from metal objects, and boiling water do not injure this panel.

Can you change active verbs into passive verbs and passive verbs into active verbs? As a sample exercise, change each active and passive verb in the above sentences.

Notice this sentence: *How are plastics used?* The verb *are used* is passive because it shows action received by the subject *plastics*. Where is the phrase in which the subject of the active verb is stated? That part of the sentence has been omitted. When you change the passive verb to an active verb, you must supply the subject, as *How do they (or scientists or manufacturers) use plastics?*

You may have noticed in your reading that certain *action* verbs may be used either transitively or intransitively — that they may or may not have receivers of the actions.

Consider the following two sentences. (1) *Men dehydrate eggs.* (2) *Eggs dehydrate into a powder suitable for cooking.*

In the first sentence the verb *dehydrate* is a transitive verb. The direct object of the verb is *eggs*. In the second sentence *dehydrate* is an intransitive verb. The eggs themselves *dehydrate (dry completely) into a powder*, etc.

Many common action verbs can be transitive or intransitive, depending on their use in a given sentence. You would probably use the word *kick* as a transitive verb in a sentence describing a football game: *He kicked the ball.* You would probably use the word *kick* as an intransitive verb if you were describing a ballet: *The girls kicked in time with the music.* *Jump, sing, and fish* are other common action verbs that may be used transitively or intransitively. Your dictionary gives both the transitive and intransitive meanings of action verbs which may be either transitive or intransitive. In the dictionary *t* stands for transitive and *i* for intransitive.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. A transitive verb has voice.
2. When the subject names the doer of the action, the verb has active voice.
3. When the subject names the receiver of the action, the verb has passive voice.

PRACTICE A

The following exercises give you drill in the voice of verbs.

List all transitive verbs in the next article and indicate after each whether it is active or passive. Disregard all verbs except simple predicates.

NEW FABRICS

Fibers from Cellulose

¹ Research work by chemists has produced a variety of new fibers for clothing. ² Rayon is the oldest of the man-made fibers. ³ This is how it is produced. ⁴ Chemicals are used to dissolve the cellulose in spruce wood chips and cotton linters. ⁵ This liquid is called viscose. ⁶ After further chemical treatments, the viscose is forced through tiny holes. ⁷ It drips from these holes in tiny filaments as fine as silk fiber. ⁸ These filaments are twisted together to make thread or yarn. ⁹ Rayon looks and feels more like silk than silk itself. ¹⁰ It has become a very important textile material. ¹¹ It also can be fabricated into tire cord of superior strength.

Fibers from Farm Products

¹ New fibers recently have been produced from the proteins in milk, soybeans, peanuts, Indian corn, chicken feathers, egg albumen, wheat, blood serum, tobacco, and pumpkin seeds! ² One of these is widely used now. ³ Aralac, which is made from casein in skim milk, is produced in large quantities. ⁴ It is used today in dress fabrics, hats, ties, scarfs, blankets. ⁵ Aralac blends well with wool, mohair, cotton, and rayon. ⁶ The protein-rich skim milk also has been used to make casein for the slick coating on magazine paper, glues, plastic buttons, buckles, and water paints.

Clothing from Coal, Air, Water

¹ Nylon has greater strength and elasticity than any natural fiber. ² It is made of phenol (from coal tar), air, and water. ³ Before the war, nylon was seen mainly in stockings and other sheer knitted articles. ⁴ It can be used for woven goods that are moth-

proof, wrinkleproof, and even stainproof. ⁵ But nylon's uses don't stop here. ⁶ It also makes paintbrush bristles and corrosion-proof window screens!

PRACTICE B

Can you form verbs in various tenses and in the two voices? Here is an opportunity to show your ability.

What verb form should be used in each of the parentheses in the following sentences? List the numbers 1 to 8 on a piece of paper and after each write the verb needed.

1. For many years manufacturers (present perfect active of *produce*) beautiful plastics.
 2. Do you know why plastics (past passive of *create*)?
 3. The present market (present active of *offer*) a long list of plastics.
 4. The telephone that I use every day (past passive of *make*) of plastics.
 5. I (future passive of *interest*) in tomorrow's development of plastics.
 6. Contrary to King Solomon's saying, something new under the sun (present perfect passive of *discover*).
 7. Two kinds of plastics (present progressive passive of *use*) by industries everywhere.
 8. I wish that I could (present perfect of *be*) a discoverer of plastics.
3. Every verb is in one of three moods: (1) *indicative*, (2) *imperative*, or (3) *subjunctive*. The mood of a verb depends upon whether the verb (1) makes a statement or asks a question, (2) gives a command, or (3) expresses a wish or a condition contrary to fact.

Read the following sentences and notice the thought expressed and the form of the verb:

1. *Competent engineers are making new machines.* This sentence states a fact.
2. *Where do the scientists work?* This sentence is a question.
3. *Read that article now.* This is a command.
4. *I wish that he were here.* This is a wish.
5. *If he were here, he would explain the process to you.* This sentence states a condition contrary to fact; that is, *he is not here.*

Verbs make assertions in different ways. They are used to make a statement of a fact, to ask a question, to give a command, or to express a wish or a condition contrary to fact. The property of a verb that shows the manner in which it is used is called mood.

When a verb makes a statement or asks a question, the verb is in the *indicative mood*. When a verb expresses a command, it is in the *imperative mood*. When a verb expresses a wish or a condition that is not true to fact, it is in the *subjunctive mood*. Verbs may be in any one of these three moods.

The mood used most commonly is the indicative mood. One rarely uses the imperative mood. The forms of the verbs in these two moods are the ones you have already studied.

The forms of the verb *be* in the subjunctive mood are different from those of the indicative mood. For example, it is correct to say: *I am invited to the party.* This verb is in the indicative mood. If one wanted to state a condition contrary to fact, he would say: *If I were invited to the party, I should be glad to accept.* The clause *If I were invited* is called a conditional clause. It expresses the condition upon which *I should be glad to accept*. If the sentence read, *If I am invited, I shall be glad to accept*, the clause *If I am invited* would still be a conditional clause. The use of the subjunctive mood in *If I were invited* indicates that the speaker is not invited, that the conditional clause is a condition contrary to fact.

Once the present subjunctive forms of the verb *be* were different from those of the indicative forms. In recent years, how-

ever, writers have used the same forms in the present tense of *be* for all moods. But there is still a difference in the past tense of *be* in the subjunctive mood. Here are the forms of the past tense of *be* in the subjunctive mood:

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

SINGULAR

1. If I were
2. If you were
3. If he were

PLURAL

1. If we were
2. If you were
3. If they were

Notice that *were* is used in all persons and numbers in the past tense of *be* in the subjunctive mood.

But notice also that *were* is used in this way to express a condition contrary to *the present fact*. In the sentence, *If I were invited to the party, I should be glad to accept*, it is certain that I am not, at the present time, invited to the party. *Were*, when used in this way, does not, like *was*, express past time.

As a sample exercise, read the following article and decide on the mood of each predicate verb.

ELECTRONICS, A NEW SCIENCE

¹ Scientists say that electronics is a new science for the world of tomorrow. ² What does this statement mean to you? ³ Do you understand the word *electronics*? ⁴ Review pages 44-45 in this book and you will have a clue. ⁵ Electronics has given us radio, sound motion pictures, television, radar, and many other useful instruments of which we are scarcely yet aware. ⁶ This science gets its name from the small but mighty electron. ⁷ Electrons are charged particles which whirl about the center of every atom of matter. ⁸ Electrons are everywhere. ⁹ They are a part of everything — the food you eat, the paper on which these words are printed. ¹⁰ Physicists believe that if 25 trillion electrons were placed side by side they would make a row one inch long. ¹¹ Six million trillion electrons flow each second through the filament of a 100-watt lamp to keep it going.

The mood of a verb has no effect on the forms except in the past tense of *be*. Master the correct use of that form.

◆ REMEMBER:

1. Verbs have moods.
2. There are three moods: indicative, for the statement of a fact or a question; imperative, for a command; subjunctive, for a wish or for a condition contrary to fact.
3. All forms of the past tense of "be" in the subjunctive mood are "were."

PRACTICE A

(1)

From the following article make lists of the following verbs: (1) in the subjunctive mood, (2) in the passive voice, (3) in the perfect tenses, (4) in the imperative mood.

ELECTRONICS IN INDUSTRY AND MANUFACTURING

¹ The electricity that flows through the wires in your home is a stream of electrons. ² Put electrons in a vacuum (airless) tube and you can make them move through empty space. ³ No wire is needed to lead them around. ⁴ This is what an electronic tube does. ⁵ It controls the fast-moving electron and makes it do all sorts of work. ⁶ The electron tube has duplicated, and has exceeded to an amazing degree, four of the five human senses — sight, hearing, touch, and smell. ⁷ It can pick out and match 2,000,000 different shades of color. ⁸ The human eye can detect only 10,000 different shades. ⁹ And the electronic tube can translate what it sees, hears, feels, or smells into mechanical or electrical action with an accuracy, speed, and tirelessness impossible to a human being. ¹⁰ For instance, the electronic tube "sees" a person bend over to take a drink of water from a fountain. ¹¹ The water is turned on. ¹² It "smells" smoke or gas. ¹³ Immediately an alarm is flashed. ¹⁴ It "feels" a flaw in a sheet of metal which is being run through a machine. ¹⁵ The metal is marked for discard at that point, though the machinery has not been stopped. ¹⁶ These

electronic "workmen" have checked, sorted, packed, and counted articles in a factory for many hours and have never grown tired.¹⁷ Another electronic tube (the X-ray tube) enables us to see through solid objects.¹⁸ Imagine a one-million-volt X-ray machine which can "see" flaws in several inches of solid steel!¹⁹ Electron microscopes will let us explore the never-before-seen world of tiny particles of matter and disease germs.²⁰ They can magnify infinitesimal objects and permit photographic enlargements up to 100,000 diameters.²¹ If magnified on this scale, a blood corpuscle would appear the size of a sofa pillow, and a dime would be more than a mile in diameter.²² If you were a scientist, what would you do next with electronics?

(2)

The following sentences need verbs. Select the correct verb according to the directions in the parentheses. List the correct verbs for each sentence. Indicate the mood of the verb.

Many Other Uses

Physicists ¹ (present perfect active of *develop*) the "inductotherm." This electronic machine ² (present active of *produce*) high-frequency radio waves which induce artificial fever in the human body. The waves do this by heating the tissues inside, instead of heating the outside of the body the way the sun's rays ³ (present active of *do*). "Why do that?" someone ⁴ (present active of *ask*). It ⁵ (present perfect passive of *prove*) by medical science that this heat can be used to relieve pain and to treat the joints, back, chest, and sore muscles. The lungs, kidneys, and the stomach also ⁶ (future passive of *treat*) with the new ultra high-frequency waves which now ⁷ (present passive of *utilize*) by physicists. Electronic tubes are used to guide machinery which ⁸ (present active of *grade*) oranges, ⁹ (present active of *inspect*) razor blades, ¹⁰ (present active of *regulate*) furnace temperatures, ¹¹ (present active of *fill*) toothpaste tubes, ¹² (present active of *open*) a door when a person approaches, ¹³ (present active of *count*) traffic, and ¹⁴ (present active of *control*) many other mechanical processes or operations. Radar ¹⁵ (future passive of *use*) at airports to guide approaching planes, and enable them to make a safe landing even in darkness and fog.

PRACTICE B

Write ten original sentences in which you use the past form of *be* in a wish or in a condition contrary to fact.

4. Infinitives are verbs preceded by the word "to."

Read the following article and notice the italicized word groups.

THE AGE OF TELECOMMUNICATIONS

¹ Do you know that it is possible *to talk* with someone halfway around the world? ² Does five minutes seem a very short time for a message *to travel* from Washington to Australia? ³ During World War II General MacArthur was able *to report* from the South Pacific in less than five minutes. ⁴ General Clark used less time than that *to make* his report from Italy to headquarters in Washington. ⁵ Officers in the Aleutian Islands could talk directly to Chicago. ⁶ All this was possible because during the war the United States created its own military network *to communicate* with its far-flung battle fronts. ⁷ Was it possible *to have* such speedy communication before the war? ⁸ What are the means used *to send* messages from one continent to another? ⁹ Let us *look* at the worldwide communication systems.

The present infinitive


The italicized word groups are, in every case, the name form of a verb with the word *to*: *to take*, *to make*, *to have*, *to be*. Such word groups are called infinitives.

An infinitive is a verbal noun, adjective, or adverb: In *To read is fun*, *to read* is an infinitive used as the subject of *is*. In the sentence *Hallowe'en witches always try to tell that tale*, *to tell* is an infinitive and is part of the direct object of *try*. Notice how the graphic analysis shows the relationship of the infinitive to other words in the sentence.

SENTENCE: Hallowe'en witches always try to tell that tale.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE (D O)	
<u>witches</u> (N)	<u>try</u> (V)	<u>to tell</u> — <u>tale</u> (N)
Hallowe'en (Adj)	always (Adv)	that (Adj)



Since the infinitive is a verb, it may have an object, which in this sentence is *tale*. The infinitive with its object is the object of *try* and is therefore used as a noun. An infinitive may also be used as an adjective. Notice this sentence: *He was the man to succeed first in sending the human voice over wires*. The infinitive *to succeed* modifies *man* and is therefore used as an adjective. In this sentence, *The network was used to serve a million telephones*, the infinitive *to serve* tells "how" the network was used and therefore is an adverbial modifier.

Sometimes *to*, the sign of the infinitive, is not expressed. For example, in the sentence *Make him do the work*, the verb *do* is an infinitive without the sign of the infinitive. Grammatically the sentence is this: *Make him to do the work*. After the verbs *make*, *let*, *hear*, *see*, *bid*, the sign of the infinitive is often omitted.

Voice and tense of infinitives

Infinitives may be in the active or passive voice. Generally an infinitive is in the active voice. Notice, however, the sentence: *He lets the first cotton growth (to) be picked and (to be) made into thread for cotton cloth*. These infinitives are in the passive voice.

Infinitives also have two tenses, the present tense and the perfect tense. Generally infinitives are in the present tense. If, however, the action of the infinitive in a sentence took place before the action of the predicate of the sentence, the infinitive should

be in the perfect tense. For example, notice the tense of the infinitive in this sentence: *I ought to have recognized them sooner*. The predicate is *ought* in the present tense; that is, right now *I ought*. The infinitive *to have recognized* is in the perfect tense because the action of the infinitive, the recognizing, took place before the action of the predicate. You will rarely need to use an infinitive in the perfect tense.

In using infinitives in your written work and speech, you should generally make a point of not separating the word *to* from the rest of the infinitive. However, a split infinitive is preferable to awkwardness.

◆ REMEMBER THESE FACTS:

1. A present infinitive is made up of the present form of the verb preceded by the word "to."
2. "To" is sometimes omitted from the infinitive.
3. Infinitives have active or passive voice and are in the present or perfect tense.
4. Generally no word should come between "to" and the rest of the infinitive.

PRACTICE A

Here are some practice exercises on infinitives.

(1)

The following article contains infinitives. Make a list of them. Indicate the voice and tense of each.

THE TELEPHONE TAKES OVER

The Telephone in World War II ||¹ During World War II, the ability to hold conversations at any time with representatives of the various Allied nations was a great asset to the President of the United States and his military leaders. ²President Roosevelt was accustomed to telephone to Prime Minister Winston Churchill to discuss changing events. ³General

Marshall, U. S. Army Chief of Staff in Washington, used the telephone at times to communicate with General Eisenhower in London.

⁴ Marshal Stalin was able to talk to the Russian representatives in Washington.

The Work of a Great American || ¹ Many thousands of miles of telephone cable and tele-

phone wires, as well as powerful wireless transmission sets, were necessary to produce this two-way communication system. ² How will this country help to meet the communication needs of the post-war world? ³ How has the United States helped in the past to build the great telephone system between continents? ⁴ What men have worked to lay its foundations? ⁵ Alexander Graham Bell, who came to America from Scotland at the age of twenty-four, is considered to be the inventor of the telephone. ⁶ He was the man to succeed first in transmitting the human voice over wires. ⁷ Other inventors were trying to accomplish the same result at the same time. ⁸ In fact on the same day as Bell, but a few hours later, Elisha Gray, another American, filed specifications for a device to carry sound. ⁹ From this time, 1875, Bell worked constantly to improve the telephone. ¹⁰ As a tribute to his work, at the time of his death all communication was suspended for one minute over the vast network which was used to serve the seventeen million telephones in Canada and the United States.

(2)

In the following article an infinitive is needed in each blank. Jot down the numbers of the blanks and after each indicate the infinitive you select. Use only these verbs; *be, find, transmit, receive, overcome, join, make*.

RADIO GROWS UP

What is (1) the part of the young giant, radio, in world telecommunications? What contribution is radio prepared (2) toward the joining of all countries of the world by means of rapid and reliable communication? In 1901, when Marconi first bridged the Atlantic by his sending and receiving a series of the letter "S," wireless

telegraphy began (3) a threat to the cable and telegraph transmission of messages. However, the first application of wireless was on ships in order (4) life safer at sea. For years it has been required that all ships afloat must be equipped (5) and (6) messages. The uttermost parts of the earth were already joined by telegraph when Marconi perfected his experiments, but it was left for wireless (7) the land to the sea. As a practical means of communication on land, wireless had many limitations (8) before it could hope (9) adequate financial backing (10) it the rival of the telegraph and the telephone.

*PRACTICE B

(I)

Infinitives have tense. Notice these sentences:

1. We want *to visit* a plastic manufacturing plant.

In the first sentence the infinitive is in the present time. It indicates that the action of the infinitive takes place after the action of the predicate.

2. The chemist would like *to have shown* us the raw materials.

In the second sentence the infinitive *to have shown* is in the perfect tense. *Have* indicates the perfect form. You use a perfect infinitive only when the action of the infinitive precedes the action of the predicate. The idea of the sentence is this: The chemist wished (after all was over) that he had shown (before) the raw materials. In other words, his "wishing" or "liking" came last. A similar idea is this: "He ought to have shown the raw materials."

Decide whether a present or a perfect infinitive should be used in the following sentences. Give the reason for your choice. If either tense may be used, indicate that fact.

1. The chemists have decided *to (use)* an entirely new formula.
2. I ought *to (purchase)* the plastic brooch.
3. Our teachers have urged us *to (study)* all we can about plastics.

4. His desire was to (combine) a bright-colored plastic with delicate design.
5. The engineers provided pier lights and beacons to (control) traffic over the bridge.
6. The owners of the building expected the engineers to (make) larger rooms.
7. Anyone in the department would try to (solve) that problem.
8. All the students would like to (see) the exhibition of plastics.
9. The scientists have decided to (use) an entirely new transmitter.
10. Cyrus Field wanted to (lay) a submarine cable.
11. His first plan was to (combine) a good receiving apparatus with an attractive radio cabinet.
12. The engineers installed lights to (indicate) traffic on the telephone switchboard.

(2)

Open to a page in some book you have at hand. Time yourself. Read for fifteen minutes and then make a list of the infinitives in the material you have read. What is the proportion of present infinitives to perfect infinitives? When you have finished reading, explain the reason for each perfect infinitive. How is each infinitive used, as a noun, adjective, or adverb?

5. The participles of a verb, present and perfect, are generally used as a part of a verb form or simple predicate. The present and past participles may also be used as adjectives. The present participle may be a gerund, or verbal noun.

As a sample exercise, read the following article and notice especially the italicized verb forms. How is each used, as a part of the predicate or in some other way?

FOOD, A WORLD PROBLEM

¹ The people of the United States have recently realized that food is the most *challenging* problem in the world. ² *Nourishing* food, like fresh air and *unlimited* quantities of *running* water, had always

been accepted as a matter of course in this richly *endowed* country of ours. ³ However, World War II taught all *thinking* citizens that food not only is a vitally *needed* weapon for war, but can help to keep the peace. ⁴ *Learning* this lesson the hard way, *studying* ration points and food values, *buying* carefully and wisely, and sometimes *doing* without *desired* foods, the American people began to have an *understanding* and appreciation of food problems. ⁵ Housewives studied food charts *prepared* by *trained* government experts and discussed with *interested* family groups over the dinner table the knowledge *gained*. ⁶ *Recognizing* vitamin-filled foods became a family game in many homes, and children as well as adults strove to establish an adequately *planned* diet.

In each case the italicized word is a participle. A participle, unless it is a part of a verb form or simple predicate, is used as a noun or an adjective. Notice the first participle: *the most challenging problem of the world*. *Challenging* is the present participle of the regular verb *challenge* and is used to modify the noun *problem*.

A participle was given its name because it partakes of the nature of both a verb and an adjective. Verb forms which share the functions of some other part of speech are called verbals. A participle is one kind of verbal. You have already studied another verbal, the gerund. You must not confuse the present participle with the gerund, though their form is identical. For use of the gerund, see again pages 195 and 261. In sentence 4, *learning* is a gerund.

Since a participle is a verbal, it may have an object. Notice, for example in sentence 4, that the present participle *learning* has the object *lesson*. In sentence 5, the participial word group, *prepared by trained government experts*, is known as a participial phrase. This phrase modifies the noun *charts*.

When you use participles as adjectives, be sure that each participle or participial phrase stands immediately before or after the word it modifies. For example, this sentence is correct: *De-*

veloping soybean plastics, Henry Ford has enlarged his field of work. The participial phrase, *developing soybean plastics*, stands next to the word it modifies. But this sentence is incorrect: *Running down the street, his new fountain pen fell out of his pocket.* The participial phrase has no word to modify and for that reason is called a dangling participle. You can correct the sentence by rewording it in this way: *Running down the street, John must have lost his new fountain pen out of his pocket* or *While he was running down the street, John must have lost his new fountain pen from his pocket.*

Notice the graphic analysis of the participial phrase.

SENTENCE: Developing soybean plastics, Henry Ford has enlarged his field of work.

ANALYSIS

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
	(D O)
Henry Ford (N)	<u>has enlarged</u> (V) <u>field</u> (N)
developing (V)	his (Pos Pro)
+plastics (N)	of (Prep)
soybean (Adj)	+work (N)



Participles have three tenses. Take, for example, the participles of the verb *go*: present, *going*; past, *gone*; perfect, *having gone*. The following sentences give the three tenses of participles.

Present Participle: *Giving* the matter no thought, you go to the store.

Past Participle: Are they all highly *trained* scientists?

Perfect Participle: *Having read* this story, you can see the need for well-trained workers.

The perfect participle shows action completed before the action of the predicate. Like the action of perfect infinitives, the action of perfect participles takes place before the action of the predicate of the sentence.

Generally you will use the present or past participle, rarely the perfect participle. Do not confuse the participle that is a part of a verb or simple predicate with a participle that is a modifier.

Participles also have voice, just as predicate verbs do, and may be either active or passive. If the noun modified performs the action in the participle, the participle is in the active voice. If the noun modified is acted upon by the participle, the participle is in the passive voice. Notice these examples.

Verbals have tense and voice but not person or mood. They rarely have number.

Active: *The man, having read the book, returned it to the library.*

Passive: *The book, having been read, occupied my mind.*

◆ REMEMBER:

1. Participles may be used as adjectives as well as nouns, which are called gerunds.
2. A participle must stand as close as possible to the noun it modifies. The noun must be stated.
3. Participles have three tenses: present, past, and perfect.
4. The perfect participle indicates action that was completed before the action of the simple predicate.
5. Participles are either active or passive.
6. Verbals have tense and voice but not person or mood. They rarely have number.

PRACTICE A

Jot down the numbers of the sentences in the following articles, and after each, list every participle used in the sentence as an adjective and the noun it modifies. Indicate whether the participle is present, past, or perfect.

NEW EDIBLE FISH

¹ Several new foods never before used for human consumption are the result of research undertaken to increase the world's food supply.

² Fish, contributing rich vitamin and mineral content to our diet, has

been one food especially studied by trained investigators. ⁸ Hundreds of thousands of pounds of small fish such as burbot, blue runner, and mullet, formerly destroyed as worthless, are now converted into an edible fish paste. ⁴ Removing head, tail, and viscera first, the packer then cooks and packs the ground fish in cans. ⁵ During the war tons of this product were prepared for our fighting allies. ⁶ Used as a spread, made into fish patties, or cooked in a stew, it is equally palatable and is likely to become a part of the American diet. ⁷ Another fish, the menhaden, having a delicious meat somewhat resembling salmon, is also put into cans for our allies and us. ⁸ This fish, containing quantities of small bones, was considered inedible. ⁹ Having found that cooking the fish dissolves the bones, experimenters put the cooked fish into cans. ¹⁰ The canned fish was then recooked under pressure and by this canning process became not only edible but delicious. ¹¹ It is a fish easily procured in large quantities, and under the name silver herring it is taking its place as a scientifically prepared food. ¹² The pilchard, a fish formerly ground into food for fox and mink raised in captivity, also has been made into human food. ¹³ Ground, seasoned, canned, and cooked, the pilchard, like the menhaden, has been made available in large quantities. ¹⁴ Other fish and other foods now considered waste may prove to be valuable foods after studies are made by trained investigators.

*PRACTICE B

You have read that participles may be passive and active. These are passive forms of *train*:

Present passive: being trained

Past passive: trained

Perfect passive: having been trained

Write the following participles as modifiers in original sentences: (1) planning, (2) organized, (3) having studied, (4) being interested, (5) having been hired, (6) producing, (7) having provided, (8) having been informed.

You will probably need to add words in some of the participial phrases.

6. Review of verbs.

You have studied all the important facts about verbs. In this lesson you have an opportunity to review verbs. As a sample exercise, read the following article and notice especially the italicized words. What verb form is each italicized word and how is it used? Tell all the facts you can about it — its number, person, tense, voice, and mood — when it has these qualities.

CHEMISTRY AT WORK FOR THE FARMER

Research Laboratories

¹ Check back over previous articles in this unit and note the number of farm crops that *have been used to produce* materials useful to industry. ² There *are* many of them — cotton, wheat, corn, soybeans, milk, peanuts, etc. ³ Since 1935 the National Farm Chemurgic Council *has worked* constantly to find nonfood uses for crops through chemurgy, "chemistry at work for the farmer." ⁴ In 1939 the United States Department of Agriculture *established* the first of four Regional Research Laboratories at Peoria, Illinois. ⁵ Other laboratories now *are* at New Orleans and Philadelphia, and near San Francisco. ⁶ Trained chemists in these laboratories *are seeking* new markets for the farm products of each region of the country, and new uses for these products in industry.

Pioneers in Chemurgy

¹ Other chemurgists *have followed* the path first marked out by Dr. Carver. ² Great strides *have been made* in using skim milk to produce textile fiber, plastics, glues, and paint. ³ Important work *has been done* with the soybean. ⁴ This bean *contains* twice as much protein as meat, about twice the calcium of milk, and more than double the minerals of wheat. ⁵ And, because of its rich oil and protein base, the soybean *can make* a variety of products ranging from foods and soaps to varnishes, textiles, and automobile parts. ⁶ Henry Ford's engineers *have done* much to develop plastic automobile parts from farm products. ⁷ They *built* an all-plastic car body, which *is* 800 pounds lighter than the standard model and *is* very

strong. ⁸ These engineers *agree* that a plastic car *may not be* better than a steel car, but they *add* that plastics *will enable* them to build a good car at a lower cost.

This article illustrates the facts you have learned in this unit. Below they are summarized for you.

◆ REMEMBER:

1. *Verbs are transitive when the action is received by the subject or the object of the verb.*
2. *Transitive verbs have voice. Verbs have active voice when the subject names the doer of the action. Verbs have passive voice when the subject names the receiver of the action.*
3. *Verbs are in the indicative, imperative, or subjunctive mood, depending upon whether they (1) make a statement or ask a question, (2) give a command, or (3) express a wish or a condition contrary to fact.*
4. *Verb forms that are not simple predicates are infinitives, participles, or gerunds. An infinitive is a verbal noun with the word to expressed or understood. A participle may be a verbal modifier or a verbal noun. Verbals have tense and voice but not person or mood, and rarely number.*

PRACTICE A

As a final checkup of your knowledge of verb forms, here are some practice exercises on verbs.

Read the following article and make these lists: (1) the transitive verbs, indicating after each whether it is in the active or passive voice; (2) the infinitives; (3) the participles, indicating the tense of each; (4) the gerunds. Select one verb to illustrate the subjunctive mood.

SCIENCE IN THE HOME

Air Conditioning

¹ Thousands of motion-picture theaters, stores, and factories have air-conditioning equipment which supplies them with made-to-order weather. ² Many more of these establishments will

install this equipment in the next few years. ³ It may be much longer, however, before a very large percentage of homes have air conditioning. ⁴ The average house was not built for air conditioning, and the installation of this equipment in a new house raises its price considerably.

Radiant Heating

¹ But there is one development that promises to give us more comfortable homes at a fairly low cost. ² This is radiant heating. ³ Engineers say the temperature in a radiant-heated room might be 65 degrees or less, yet you could sit around in your shirt sleeves and feel comfortable. ⁴ This sounds like a magician's trick. ⁵ But it isn't. ⁶ Ask your physics teacher to explain this. ⁷ He will mention a law which says that a warm body always loses heat to a cold one. ⁸ Your body produces more heat than it needs. ⁹ This extra heat produced by your body must be reduced, if you are to be comfortable. ¹⁰ You feel uncomfortably warm when your body has difficulty getting rid of its excess heat, and you feel cold when it loses heat too fast. ¹¹ If the walls of a room are cold you lose heat to them. ¹² You feel chilly even though the air in the room may be warm. ¹³ But if the walls around you are heated by steam pipes to 80 to 90 degrees, you lose very little heat to them. ¹⁴ You feel comfortably warm even with cold air swirling around you. ¹⁵ A radiator in a room heats the air in one spot. ¹⁶ We depend on the circulation of air to warm the whole room. ¹⁷ This causes drafts and the room temperature is never even. ¹⁸ You avoid this health hazard by using radiant heating.

Radiant Cooling

¹ Radiant cooling of a home would work on the same principle as radiant heating. ² You would pump air or cold water through the pipes and let your body radiate heat to the cool walls. ³ In most climates, however, a dehumidifier would be needed to take the moisture out of the air. ⁴ If this were not done, damp air would condense on the walls and turn them into miniature waterfalls. ⁵ You can demonstrate this fact by putting ice in a glass of water and observing how the sides of the glass "sweat."

Laundering the Air

¹ Before the war, Gaylord W. Penney of Westinghouse had developed an electronic instrument that "laundered" the air in his home. ² He called it a Precipitron. ³ In using the Precipitron, the windows of a home are kept closed. ⁴ All air is brought in by air intake ducts and passed through a "laundry." ⁵ It removes 90 per cent of all smoke and dust in the air. ⁶ The Precipitron eliminates much sweeping and dusting; and furniture, rugs and woodwork almost never have to be cleaned. ⁷ Curtains stay clean much longer. ⁸ The savings in laundry and dry-cleaning bills add up to quite a sum of money.

PRACTICE B

Write three original sentences to show the use of the participle, the infinitive, and the gerund.

Books About the World of Tomorrow

If you care to read more about the world of tomorrow you will find these books of value.

Atoms in Action, by George R. Harrison. William Morrow & Company, New York, 1941

Careers in Science, by Philip Pollack. E. P. Dutton & Company, New York, 1945

Chemistry in the Service of Man, by Alexander Findlay. Longmans, Green & Co., New York, 1939

Miracles Ahead! by Norman V. Carlisle and Frank B. Latham. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1944

Science Calls to Youth, by Raymond F. Yates. D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1941

Science Remakes Our World, by James Stokley. Ives Washburn, Inc., New York, 1942

Soybeans, Gold from the Soil, by Edward Jerome Dies. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1943

A STUDY OF WORDS

How many words do you know? Everyone has three vocabularies: (a) a speaking vocabulary, (b) a writing vocabulary, and (c) a reading vocabulary. Generally a person's speaking vocabulary is the smallest of the three, the writing vocabulary is next larger, and the reading vocabulary is the largest.

When you are graduated from high school, you should know at least 3000 words, a small number compared to all the words there are.

The alert person is curious about facts and happenings. As he gets information, he adds new words to his ever growing vocabulary, because a word is the symbol of an idea. Every invention, every discovery in science, every advance in industry makes new words or gives new meanings to old words. The well-informed person takes these new words and meanings into his vocabulary.

New Studies in Grammar teaches grammar by means of different subjects. In Unit One the subject is aviation. In another unit the subject is the radio. As you read about these subjects, you may add new words to your vocabulary. This section of the book takes up special words used in each unit. You will learn how some of the words are formed and you will discover other important facts about them.

This work will involve the use of a good dictionary.

UNIT ONE

AVIATION

George Washington and even Abraham Lincoln could not have used the language of aviation, because it did not exist in their time. How well do you know the language of aviation?

Below is a partial list of words that are used in discussing the airplane in Unit One. Some of these words — *helium*, *spherical*, and *transoceanic*, for example — might of course be used in discussing other subjects and would have exactly the same meaning. Other words as used in Unit One belong especially to the language of aviation. How many of the following words do you know?

- | | | |
|----------------|----------------|----------------------|
| 1. aeronautics | 13. flight | 25. runway |
| 2. altimeter | 14. fuselage | 26. spherical |
| 3. altitude | 15. gauge | 27. stratosphere |
| 4. amphibian | 16. glider | 28. supercharged |
| 5. ascent | 17. helicopter | 29. take-off |
| 6. aviation | 18. helium | 30. taxied |
| 7. bank | 19. hydrogen | 31. technician |
| 8. chronometer | 20. instrument | 32. throttle |
| 9. cockpit | 21. panel | 33. transcontinental |
| 10. control | 22. plunge | 34. transoceanic |
| 11. deicer | 23. precision | 35. transport |
| 12. descent | 24. propellers | 36. zeppelin |

Here are some ways in which you can increase your vocabulary of words that apply to aviation.

I

Write down on a piece of paper the letters *a*, *b*, *c* to stand for the three vocabularies. Look over the list and write after *a* the numbers of the words which you understand when you read but which you think you never use in your spoken or written language. After *b* write the numbers of the words which you

believe you use in your writing vocabulary but which you think you do not use in your spoken vocabulary. After *c* write the numbers of the words which you can use in your spoken vocabulary. Finally, jot down the numbers of the words you do not use at all. Look up the meanings of these words and use them in writing original sentences.

2

List other words, besides those in this unit, that have come into the language through the airplane or are old words that have new meanings when used in discussing aviation. You may find such words in newspapers, magazines, or books, or you may hear them when listening to the radio, or talking with people who are interested in aviation.

3

Many words are made up of different parts. For example, notice the word *transport*. The syllable *port* is the basic part of the word. *Port* comes from a Latin word meaning to *carry*. The first part of the word is *trans*. It is called a prefix because *to prefix* means to *put before*. A prefix is a syllable that comes *before* the basic part of the word. The prefix *trans* means *across*. Now the origin of the word *transport* is perfectly clear; it comes from the Latin and means *to carry across*. If the accent is on the first syllable, the word *transport* is a noun and means *carriage* or *transportation*. That is its meaning in Unit One.

List five other words that have the basic part *port*. Does the rest of each word make a change in its meaning? How?

What five words do you know that have the prefix *trans*?

4

Now notice the word *aviation*. The first part of this word, *avia*, is its basic part. It comes from the Latin word *avis*, meaning *bird*. The second part of the word, *tion*, is called a *suffix*.

To *suffix* means to *fasten on*; therefore, a suffix is a syllable added to the basic part of the word. The suffix *tion* is often used to form nouns from verbs. It merely indicates action or state. What other words do you know that end in the suffix *tion*? It may be spelled *sion* or *xion*, also. The verb derived from *avis* is, of course, to *aviate*. If you added the suffix *tor* instead of the suffix *tion*, you would have *aviator*. What other words do you know ending in *or*? What kind of nouns seem to be formed by adding this suffix?

5

A word may have more than one part and yet contain neither a prefix nor a suffix. Notice the word *stratosphere*. It has two parts. Each part of the word is what your dictionary calls a *combining form*. The first part of *stratosphere* is *strato*. It comes from the Latin word *stratum* meaning *a covering that spreads over something*. For example, *stratum* may mean *a layer of earth that covers a layer of rock*. The second part of *stratosphere* is *sphere*. *Sphere* comes from a Latin word that means *ball*, and in this word *sphere* means *globe or the earth*. *Stratosphere* is therefore *the covering of the earth*. The two combining forms *strato* and *sphere* are combined to form the one word *stratosphere*.

What other words do you know that are formed partly from the Latin *stratum* or *strato*? *Sphere* is also used in forming several other words. Which ones do you know? What is the meaning of each?

6

In an unabridged dictionary find the origin of these words: *amphibian*, *helicopter*, *hydrogen*, *maneuver*, *parachute*, *velocity*.

7

How are *chronometer* and *altimeter* alike in origin? What do *altitude* and *altimeter* have in common? What do *ascend* and *descend* have in common?

8

Here is a puzzle, involving some of the words in the list on page 348. One word may have several meanings, each depending on how it is used or in what connection. Write a sentence using each of the following words with its meaning when used in connection with aviation rather than with the meaning stated here:

(1) A word that sometimes means a business concern that takes care of money

(2) A word that sometimes means stairs from one landing to the next

(3) A word that sometimes means the throat or windpipe

(4) A word that often means to rule or dominate

(5) A word that sometimes means a long piece of timber

(6) A word that is often applied to a skilled artist or musician

(7) A word that is used to mean an enclosure for cockfights

(8) A word that often means the ground bordering a lake or river

(9) A word that is used in dressmaking and sometimes means an ornamental strip on a skirt

9

Words are made in different ways. Words taken from Greek or Latin are not the only ones which may be combined to form new words. We combine *run* and *way* to form the new word *runway*. Occasionally a word is the name of a person, as *zeppelin*. What words do you know that were originally names of people or places?

* 10

If you have finished the preceding exercises before others in your class, you might use in original sentences the other words that are in the list on page 348 but have not been studied in these exercises.

UNIT TWO

RADIO

The invention of radio and its rapid advance have added many new words to our language and given new meanings and uses to old words. Here is a partial list of words which are related to radio as they are used in Unit Two:

- | | | |
|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1. aerial | 10. fluorescent | 19. telephone |
| 2. announcer | 11. microphone | 20. teletype |
| 3. beam | 12. network | 21. television |
| 4. broadcast | 13. radar | 22. transmitter |
| 5. code | 14. radiophone | 23. tube |
| 6. commentator | 15. receiver | 24. vacuum |
| 7. cone | 16. script | 25. vibration |
| 8. detector | 17. switchboard | 26. waves |
| 9. ether | 18. telegraphy | 27. wireless |

These exercises may increase your ability to understand and use certain words which are commonly used in radio.

I

List the numbers of the words given above that you do not know. Guess at the meaning of each and jot it down. Then look up each word in the dictionary and write down the correct meaning when used concerning radio.

2

One combining form used in many words is *tele*. It comes from the Greek and means *far* or *far off*. When placed before

another combining form or word it has the meaning of *operating at a distance*. For example, *television* means *seeing from a distance*, for *vision* comes from a word meaning *to see*. What words in Unit Two contain *tele*? In what other words that you know is *tele* used and what does each word mean?

3

What words do you know that have the prefix *trans*? Explain the origin of each word, the basic part and the prefix.

4

How are the words *navigation* and *aviation* alike? Go to the dictionary and find their origin.

5

Compare the meaning of the following sets of words, most of which are used in Unit Two. How are they alike or unlike, and what do they mean when applied to radio? Look up their origin in a recently published dictionary.

- (1) contact
detector
- (2) telegraph
telephone
- (3) radiophone
microphone
- (4) telecast
broadcast
- (5) code
cone
- (6) script
transcription

- (7) aerial
aeronautics
- (8) radar
radio
- (9) wireless
waves
- (10) network
switchboard
- (11) announcer
commentator
- (12) vibration
volume

6

If you are a Latin student, explain how the word *fluorescent* means *flowing*.

* 7

Write sentences containing the words in the list on page 352 that you have not studied in the preceding exercises. Use your sentences as a dictation exercise with a blank for each word. See if your classmates can supply the correct word.

UNIT THREE

JOBS

The most important words that deal with the subject of careers and jobs as presented in Unit Three are listed here:

- | | | |
|------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. accounting | 12. designing | 23. profession |
| 2. accuracy | 13. engineer | 24. psychiatrist |
| 3. adjusted | 14. filing | 25. scientifically |
| 4. agriculturist | 15. humanitarian | 26. secretary |
| 5. aptitude | 16. hygiene | 27. self-appraisal |
| 6. architect | 17. industry | 28. shorthand |
| 7. bookkeeper | 18. mechanical | 29. stenographer |
| 8. cashier | 19. medical | 30. systematic |
| 9. clergyman | 20. physician | 31. technical |
| 10. clerical | 21. prevocational | 32. typist |
| 11. commercial | 22. principle | 33. vocation |

These exercises give you practice in using words that deal with the subject of jobs and careers.

I

What is the difference in the meaning of these two words: *profession* and *engineering*? The word *profession* is a general word that means a certain kind of vocation or work; *engineering* is a specific word that means one kind of profession. The main difference between the two words is that *profession* is a general word and *engineering* is a specific word.

Specific words have more definite and restricted meaning

than general words. Specific words are more colorful. *Flower* is a general noun; *rose* is a specific noun. Your vocabulary is rich if you have many specific words in it.

Study the words given on page 354 and list the general terms that name careers and below each of these general nouns list three specific nouns. If the word in the list is an adjective, use the noun form. If the word is a noun but names a type of worker, such as *agriculturist*, change the word to *agriculture*, which is the general term for a career.

2

The word *stenography*, like many other words, has a story. The first part of the word is *steno*, which comes from a Greek word meaning *narrow* or *little*. The second part is *graphy*, which comes from a Greek word meaning *to write*. You can understand now that the derivation of the word *stenography*, meaning *shorthand*, is really a *short way of writing*.

List other words that have the combining form *graphy*. How does it influence the meaning of each word?

3

The suffix *al* is used commonly with the meaning of *belonging to* or *having the character of*. What words listed on page 354 have the suffix *al* that means *belonging to* or *having the character of*? What other words do you know which have the same suffix with the same meaning?

4

The word *vocation* is a term used to mean *one's work*. The basic part of the word comes from a Latin word meaning *to call*. The suffix, of course, is *tion*. How is the clergyman exactly right when he terms his work a *calling*?

The word *avocation* is closely related to *vocation*. Look up

the meaning of the prefix *a* in your dictionary and then show the meaning of *avocation*.

5

You have heard the word *educate* for years. *Educate* comes from a Latin word, which means *to lead forth*. How does the work in this class *educate* you? What is led forth? From where is it led forth? Prepare a brief talk in which you show how the work you are doing in a specific class actually *educates* you.

6

One of the words in the list on page 354 is *principle*. How is it different in meaning from *principal*?

7

Pick out ten words in the list on page 354 that had their origin in an ancient or modern foreign language. What did they mean originally? Consult a good dictionary.

8

How are the prefixes *pre* and *pro* alike or unlike in meaning? List five words that have the prefix *pre* and five that have *pro*. Include the words with these prefixes from the list on page 354.

9

List the words in the word list on page 354 that name the characteristics one should possess to excel at any job.

UNIT FOUR

NUTRITION AND VITAMINS

The following words are the most important ones in the discussion of vitamins and nutrients.

- | | | |
|----------------------|---------------|----------------|
| 1. bacteria | 9. disease | 17. mineral |
| 2. calcium | 10. element | 18. nutrient |
| 3. calcium phosphate | 11. energy | 19. phosphorus |
| 4. carbohydrate | 12. essential | 20. protein |
| 5. chemical | 13. fatigue | 21. substance |
| 6. corpuscles | 14. function | 22. thiamin |
| 7. deficiency | 15. healthy | 23. tissue |
| 8. diet | 16. infection | 24. vitamin |

These exercises will tell you more about words and will enlarge your vocabulary.

I

Many words have meanings that are very much alike. For example, these verbs have similar meanings: *argue*, *discuss*, *debate*, *dispute*. They all mean *to talk about something*. Words like these that mean nearly the same thing are called *synonyms*. Their meanings, however, are slightly different as you will see if you will consult a dictionary. How many synonyms can you find in the above list? The words in each set of synonyms must be the same part of speech.

2

Sometimes words have opposite meanings, as *sweet* and *sour*, *light* and *heavy*. Such words are called *antonyms*. Sometimes the antonym of a word is an entirely different word, as in the examples just given. Sometimes a prefix gives the opposite meaning to a word. What are the antonyms of these words: *deficiency*, *energy*, *essential*, *healthy*?

3

The adjectives *healthy* and *healthful* are synonyms. Like all synonyms they have slightly different meanings. This difference is caused by the suffixes *y* and *ful*. How do they differ in meaning? List other sets of synonyms whose suffixes may cause a

slight difference in meaning. Here is a hint: *peaceful* and *peaceable*.

4

The list on page 357 has a number of specific words. What are they and what is the general term for each group?

5

Our language has many words in which the basic part is the same. For example, the words *permit*, *transmit*, and *remit* have the same basic part, *mit*. This part of each of the words comes from a Latin word meaning *to send*. The word *diet* is the basic part of a small group of words. What was the original Greek meaning of *diet*? What words do you know that have *diet* as the basic part of the word? What does each word mean?

6

What was the original meaning of the first part of the word *vitamin*?

*7

In original sentences use the words in the list on page 357 that you have not studied in the preceding exercises.

UNIT FIVE

MEXICO

The words listed here are mostly common Spanish words used in Unit Five. All but three proper nouns have been omitted. You will find the singular form in the list.

1. amphitheater
2. Aztec
3. cactus
4. cathedral

5. Cortes
6. Diego Rivera [dee ay'goh
ree vay'rah]
7. edifice

- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| 8. hacienda [ah syen'dah] | 18. peon |
| 9. maguey [mag'way] | 19. pelota |
| 10. maize | 20. plaza |
| 11. mamey [mah'may] | 21. pottery |
| 12. mango | 22. rebozo [ray boh'soh] |
| 13. mesa [may'sah] | 23. semitropical |
| 14. museum | 24. serape [sch rah'pay] |
| 15. neighbor | 25. sombrero |
| 16. papaya [pah pah'yah] | 26. tortilla [tor tee'yah] |
| 17. paseo | 27. zapote [sah poh'tay] |

These exercises will increase your vocabulary.

I

Give the English equivalent of every Spanish word in the list except the three proper nouns. What Spanish names of food and clothing do you know that are not listed above?

Which of the words are already in the language of your part of the United States? What parts of the United States use Spanish words most commonly?

2

List the specific words, given on pages 358-359, for these general nouns: *food, clothing, buildings, persons*.

3

What is the original meaning of *neighbor*? What words belong to this family?

4

What was the first meaning of *relic*? How did it come to have its present meaning?

5

What is *variegated pottery*? Use *variegated* in two sentences dealing with Mexican clothing.

6

The prefix *semi* is often used in our language. What does it mean? What effect does it have on *tropical*? List five common words that have this prefix. Do the same with the prefix *amphi*. One such word is *amphitheater*.

7

Write original sentences that explain what we mean by *plaza*, *museum*, *volcanic*, *pottery*.

UNIT SIX

SOUTH AMERICA

The following list presents the most outstanding words used in Unit Six. Only two are proper nouns. A few are fairly common Spanish words. Some have origins that make them more meaningful.

- | | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| 1. alluvial | 8. export | 15. manufacturing |
| 2. avenida [ah ven ee'dah] | 9. fabulously | 16. metropolis |
| 3. beneficial | 10. gaucho | 17. pampas |
| 4. cacao | 11. Inca | 18. phenomenally |
| 5. cosmopolitan | 12. iodine | 19. residue |
| 6. democracy | 13. llanos | 20. revenue |
| 7. expenditure | 14. magnificent | 21. transportation |

I

The word *beneficial* is one of many words that contain the combining form *bene*, meaning *well*. The second part of the word comes from the Latin word *facere*, meaning *to do*. The last part of the word is the suffix *al*, which, as you have seen on page 355, is used in forming adjectives. You can see why the

word *beneficial* is used to describe something which *does well*. What other words containing *bene* do you know?

2

The word *export* is in the list on page 360. What does it mean? Is *export* a synonym or an antonym of *import*? Explain after you have studied the two words in the dictionary.

3

Two important words in the list on page 360 are *metropolis* and *cosmopolitan*. How are they related? What is the difference between a city which is *cosmopolitan* and one which is *metropolitan*?

4

What Spanish words do you find in the list on page 360? What are their closest English equivalents?

5

The word *democracy* appears in the list. The adjective derived from this noun is *democratic*. Both *democracy* and *republic* are a kind of government. Study the definition of each and try to tell just what is the difference in their meaning.

* 6

Use in original sentences all the words in the list on page 360 not studied in the above exercises.

UNIT SEVEN

CANADA

The following words are used in Unit Seven in the discussion of Canada.

- | | | |
|----------------|-------------------|------------------|
| 1. adventurous | 10. international | 19. probationary |
| 2. berth | 11. jealousy | 20. province |
| 3. community | 12. magnificent | 21. religious |
| 4. dangerous | 13. maneuver | 22. rivalry |
| 5. Dominion | 14. maritime | 23. sentinel |
| 6. glamorous | 15. Nova Scotia | 24. strenuous |
| 7. Gothic | 16. parliament | 25. territory |
| 8. hardy | 17. pelts | 26. tundra |
| 9. include | 18. prairie | 27. vista |

In the following exercises you will learn more about these words.

I

Would you say, *House is where you live*? This is not a definition of *house*. In the first place, a house is an object. In defining a word, first state the general class to which the object belongs. *A house is a structure*. Next give the specific characteristic that separates the word to be defined from others in the general class. *A house is a structure for human habitation*.

Every definition has these two parts: (1) the general class to which the word defined belongs and (2) the specific characteristic that separates the word defined from others in its general class.

How would you define *to travel*? Since you are defining a verb form, you would use the same form of the verb in stating the general art: *to travel is to journey*. Next you add the specific characteristic: *to travel is to journey to a distant place or many places*.

Define the following words from the list above: *berth, community, probationary, province, rigorous*.

2

In one of the articles in Unit Seven you read about the qualifications needed by the Canadian Mountie. State the specific words that name the qualities. You may add to those that are

listed. (You may omit qualities such as the height requirement, which you would need a whole clause to explain.)

3

Gothic architecture is mentioned in the article about Ottawa. What are the specific words that name features or characteristics of this kind of architecture? What are other kinds of architecture? List the specific words that name features or characteristics of each kind.

4

Would you believe that the words *glamor* and *grammar* are closely related? Go to an unabridged dictionary and find out about their origin. Believe it or not, you will find that *grammar* is *glamorous*.

5

The following sentences tell us that certain words and meanings are related. Discover in a standard dictionary how these relationships exist.

Magnificent means related to greatness.

Maneuver is related to *hand* and to *work*.

Maritime relates to the *sea*.

Parliament is related to *speak*.

Territory relates to *land*.

Vista is related to *see*.

6

What is the literal meaning of the name *Nova Scotia*?

7

The word *maneuver* may be used as a noun and as a verb. In what way is it used in the story of a mountie's later training? Write two original sentences using it as a noun in one sentence and as a verb in the other.

8

Look up the pronunciation of *religious*. What prefix added to this word makes another word?

* 9

Use the words not studied in the preceding exercises in original sentences.

UNIT EIGHT

MUSIC

The following words are used in the discussion of music in Unit Eight:

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|
| 1. accompaniment | 13. jazz | 25. saxophone |
| 2. bard | 14. lullaby | 26. skald |
| 3. chamber music | 15. meistersinger | 27. solo |
| 4. chanty [shahn'ti] | 16. minstrel | 28. spiritual |
| 5. choral | 17. musical comedy | 29. swing |
| 6. classical | 18. opera | 30. symphony |
| 7. concerto [kawn cher'toh] | 19. orchestra | 31. syncopation |
| 8. enthusiastic | 20. patriotic | 32. talented |
| 9. folk | 21. plaintive | 33. theme |
| 10. genius | 22. prodigy | 34. troubadour |
| 11. improvisation | 23. rhapsody | 35. vehicle |
| 12. instrument | 24. rhythm | 36. waltz |

These exercises will give you practice in using the above words.

I

The list contains many specific words. Select the specific words for *music* and for *musical storytellers*. Use each word in an original sentence which shows its specific meaning.

2

Give the meaning of each of these three words: *prodigy*, *genius*, *talented*.

3

What antonyms do you find in the list? What others can you suggest?

4

The word *instrument* is a general term. What subjects besides music make common use of this word? What are some of the instruments in each case? Make the same study for the word *vehicle*.

5

The articles in this unit name several musical instruments. These are not listed on page 364. Glance over one or more of the articles and find the specific words for each general group of instruments. Give the general word and after it list the specific words.

* 6

Define each of the words in the list not studied in the previous exercises.

UNIT NINE

SPORTS

The following list contains words that were used in the discussion of sports in Unit Nine.

- | | | |
|------------------|-------------------|-----------------|
| 1. archery | 10. co-ordination | 19. rigorous |
| 2. arrow | 11. equipment | 20. skill |
| 3. athlete | 12. expert | 21. sportsman |
| 4. badminton | 13. football | 22. strategy |
| 5. bait | 14. meet | 23. supervision |
| 6. bowling green | 15. participation | 24. target |
| 7. bowls | 16. persistent | 25. taut |
| 8. championship | 17. playground | 26. team |
| 9. competitive | 18. reel | 27. verdict |

The following exercises will increase your vocabulary in the world of sports.

1

In fishing the expression *play the fish* is frequently used. This kind of word group is known as an *idiom*. It is an expression that cannot be translated literally, word for word, into another language because its meaning as a whole is not what the words mean normally. This expression means *to tire the fish, to wear it down*. Here is another idiom: *kick over the traces*. What does this idiom mean? What other idioms do you know? Make a list of ten common idioms.

2

Did you know that the word *strategy* is related to *the leader of an army*? Look up this word in an unabridged dictionary and explain its origin to the class.

3

The word *meet* is used in discussing an athletic contest. Consult a standard dictionary and find the various meanings of *meet*. Then write six sentences in which you use the word as a verb, four as a noun, and one as an adjective.

4

The suffix *ous* means *having the quality of*. When added to a noun, *ous* makes the word an adjective. List five adjectives, including the one in the list, that have the suffix *ous*. Give the meaning of each adjective.

5

The syllable *ship* is a suffix that is used in forming nouns. What different meanings can this suffix have? List five nouns, including the one in the list, that have the suffix *ship*, and give the meaning of each noun.

6

Some of the words in the list on page 366 have unusual origins. Find the origin of *archery*, *competitor*, *co-ordination*, *participation*, and *supervision*. What words do you know that have the same basic parts as these words?

7

From the list find eight specific nouns. To how many different groups do they belong? What is the general term for each group? Add to each group so that it has at least five specific words.

8

You have learned that words have come into our language in different ways. Some come from Latin or Greek or from a modern foreign language, with basic parts, prefixes, and suffixes. Some are based on the names of people or places. Still others are different English words put together to make new words. How many illustrations in the list on page 366 can you find of each kind of origin?

UNIT TEN

PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL BEHAVIOR

The following words are used in Unit Ten.

- | | | |
|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| 1. ability | 12. determined | 23. relationship |
| 2. adjusted | 13. ego | 24. responsibility |
| 3. attitude | 14. embarrass | 25. satisfied |
| 4. average | 15. experience | 26. scholastic |
| 5. behavior | 16. genial | 27. social |
| 6. character | 17. mind | 28. standard |
| 7. complex | 18. neighbor | 29. stubborn |
| 8. compromise | 19. personality | 30. study |
| 9. conceited | 20. popular | 31. successful |
| 10. co-operate | 21. recommend | 32. superiority |
| 11. criteria | 22. recreation | 33. suspicious |

The following exercises will help you get a working knowledge of these words.

I

In discussions of behavior, one often hears the word *psychology*. Look up its parts in the dictionary: *psycho* and *logy*. What other fairly common words do you know that contain either *psycho* or *logy*?

2

The word *ego* is the Latin word meaning *I*. Look it up in the dictionary and find out what its meaning is from the standpoint of psychology. Decide upon the meaning of each of these words: *egoist*, *egotist*, *egocentric*, *egoism*. How are they alike and how are they different?

3

What is the origin of the word *criterion*? What does the word mean in Latin? How could the present meaning of *criterion*

come from the original meaning? What is the plural form of *criterion*? What other English words are closely related to *criterion* in origin and meaning?

4

From the list on page 368 select the words that describe personality.

5

Look up the noun *complex* in the dictionary. What is its origin? What was its original meaning? In what fields of thought is it used? What does it mean when used in connection with psychology? What word in the list on page 368 may be used with the word *complex*? What other words do you know that may be used with it?

6

What is the origin of the word *satisfied*? What other words do you know that contain *satis*? What synonyms and antonyms of *satisfied* can you find? How do the synonyms differ in meaning?

7

What does the group of words, *a well-adjusted person*, mean? What are the parts of the word *adjust*? What does each part mean? Name a synonym of the psychological word *adjustment*.

8

Take all the words in the list on page 368 and break each into its basic part, prefix, and suffix. One word may have all three parts: a basic part, a prefix, and a suffix. Another word may have only one or two of these parts. (Remember that a word may have more than one basic part.) After each part of the word indicate the original meaning of that part of the word.

UNIT ELEVEN

OUR GLOBAL WORLD

The following list contains many of the words used in the discussion of global world geography.

- | | | |
|------------------|----------------|-------------------------|
| 1. area | 11. equator | 21. population |
| 2. artificial | 12. geography | 22. relative |
| 3. circumference | 13. global | 23. representation |
| 4. civilization | 14. hemisphere | 24. resources |
| 5. climate | 15. latitude | 25. route |
| 6. coastal | 16. longitude | 26. temperature |
| 7. conception | 17. meridian | 27. trans-Antarctic |
| 8. consume | 18. natural | 28. trans-Arctic |
| 9. distortion | 19. parallels | 29. Tropic of Cancer |
| 10. distribution | 20. peninsula | 30. Tropic of Capricorn |

These exercises will give you practice in using the language of global world geography.

I

Five common geographical terms are *meridian*, *latitude*, *parallel*, *longitude*, *equator*. Show how the present meaning of these words comes from the Latin meaning *breadth*, *one who equalizes*, *beside one another*, *length*, *the middle of the day*.

2

You have learned that *graph* means writing. In this unit you will find a word containing *graph*. How does it affect the meaning of the word? List five other words ending in *graphy* and explain the meaning of each. HINT: One such word is a synonym for mapmaking.

3

Explain the use of each of these suffixes: *al*, *tion*, *tive*. Show how they affect the meaning of words in the list above.

4

The earth has five divisions, each known as a zone. What are the specific terms that name the different zones? Consult your dictionary.

5

Read the following five lists of words. You will see that not all of the lists are made up of words that belong together. Some of them contain a word that does not belong in the list in which you find it. What is the word and why should it not be in that list?

- (1) climate, freezing, weather, temperature
- (2) region, area, direction, district
- (3) longitude, latitude, meridian, parallel
- (4) hot, temperate, frigid, torrid
- (5) monosphere, stratosphere, hemisphere, spherical

6

Do you find any antonyms in the list on page 370? What are they? What others could you add?

UNIT TWELVE

THE WORLD OF TOMORROW

The following words are used in discussing the world of tomorrow:

- | | | |
|-----------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. casein | 9. disinfectants | 17. microscope |
| 2. Cellophane | 10. edible | 18. palatable |
| 3. Cellulose | 11. electronics | 19. physicists |
| 4. chemist | 12. flammable | 20. plastics |
| 5. communicate | 13. hydrocarbon | 21. radiant |
| 6. corrosion | 14. inductotherm | 22. ray |
| 7. dehumidifier | 15. infinitesimal | 23. synthetic |
| 8. dehydrate | 16. lignin | 24. telecommunication |

These exercises may add new words to your vocabulary.

1

Make a list of the suffixes in the list and indicate any change that each suffix makes in the part of speech of the word.

2

The general word *ray* is sometimes used with another word to form a more specific word. Make a list of the different *rays* discussed in the unit. Can you give some distinguishing characteristic of each *ray* you list?

3

Notice the word *infinite* in *infinitesimal*. What is the origin of *infinite*? If you study Latin you can tell the class what *ad infinitum* means.

4

From what language does the word *plastic* come? What parts of speech may it be? When *plastic* is used alone, it is a general term. What modifying adjectives used with *plastic* give it a more specific meaning?

5

The word *synthetic* has recently become very common. What is its origin? What other words do you know that contain the common prefix *syn*, or *sym*, as it is often spelled? List some words in which *synthetic* is used as the modifying adjective.

6

What is the original meaning of each part of the word *microscope*? Name another word which contains *micro*, and use it in an original sentence. What other word, besides *microscope*, do you know that contains *scope*? HINT: an instrument used on submarines.

7

Make a list of the words not studied in the preceding exercises and show the original meaning of each.

INDEX

- Abbreviations: in letters, 106; period after, 106
- Action: completed by direct object, 39, 41, 43, 79; words, 22, 43
- Active voice: 323, 326, 344
- Address, noun of: 103
- Addresses and dates, punctuation of: 106
- Adjectives: with absolute meanings, 295, 314; *a, an, the* as, 50; capitalization of proper, 86, 87, 88; comparison of, 289, 291, 295, 313; definition of, 40, 41, 43, 47, 52, 79, 289, 298; definition of proper, 88; formation of adverbs from, 299, 307-308, 314; interrogative, 62; modified by adverbs, 58, 60; nouns used as, 50, 307; predicate, 40, 50, 298, 300, 303; similar in form to adverbs, 301; special care in spelling, 305, 307-308; that number and limit, 51, 52; used as second objects, 259; verb forms as, 50
- Adjective clauses: definition of, 141-142, 147; introduced by relative pronouns, 142, 160, 172, 180; placement of, 145; punctuation of, 151, 179, 180; restrictive or nonrestrictive, 149; use of, 143-147, 158
- Adjective phrases: 68, 69, 70-71, 73, 79
- Adverb phrases: 70-71, 73
- Adverbial clauses: conditional, 157; definition of, 153, 160-161, 163, 180; nonrestrictive, 161, 180; placement of, 155; punctuation of introductory, 161, 163, 180; uses of, 153-155, 156-158
- Adverbial nouns: definition of, 62, 63; most common, 62
- Adverbs: comparison of, 289, 291-293; conjunctive, 132-133; definition of, 54, 56, 60, 63, 79, 289, 303; formed from adjectives, 299, 307-308, 314; as modifiers of adjectives, 58, 290, 298; as modifiers of other adverbs, 58, 290, 298; as modifiers of verbs, 53, 63, 290, 298; nouns used as, 62; similar in form to adjectives, 301; spelling of, 305, 307-308
- Agreement: of pronoun and antecedent, 256, 266-267, 268; in sentences beginning with *there*, 232; of subject and verb, 217, 230-231, 232-235, 247; when phrase intervenes, 232-233
- Analysis: of appositives, 83; of complex sentences, 142, 144, 145, 146, 147, 153, 154, 155, 157, 158, 159, 166, 167, 171, 172, 179; of compound-complex sentences, 175; of compound elements, 114, 115, 116; of compound sentences, 122; graphic, 48; of infinitives, 334; of parenthetical clauses, 171; of parenthetical group of words, 122; of participial phrase, 340; of

phrase modifiers, 71; of second object, 258; of simple sentence, 48

Antecedent: agreement of, with pronoun, 265, 266, 268; of common gender, 267; definition of, 147, 266; of *what* and *whatever*, 166

Apostrophe: in contractions, 106; in plurals of letters or numbers, 195-196; in possessive forms of nouns, 190, 191-192; in possessives of names, 197; in possessives of compound nouns, 196

Appositive: definition of, 82, 84, 85; dependent clause as, 168; and parenthetical expression, 101; position of, in sentence, 82, 101; punctuation of, 82-83, 84, 86, 97, 108

Article: 50

Auxiliary verbs: *can* and *may* as, 218; definition of, 27; list of most common, 27; used with past participles, 208

Bibliography: on *The Air Age*, 317; on *Canada*, 184; on *Flyers and Flying*, 16-18; on *Human Behavior*, 287-288; on *Mexico*, 110; on *Music*, 202-203; on *Nutrition and Vitamins*, 80-81; on *Radio*, 45-46; on *South America*, 140; on *Sports and Games*, 249; on *Vocations*, 65-66; on *The World of Tomorrow*, 346

Capitalization: at beginning of sentence, 7; of days of week, months, holidays, 89; of deity, 91; of

name of relationship, 90; of names of races, peoples, nations, 89; of proper adjectives, 86-88, 108; of proper nouns, 86-88, 108; of sections of country or world, 91; of titles of books, 91; of titles of persons, 90; of titles of poems, magazines, newspapers, 90

Case: definition of, 252; nominative, 250; objective, 256; of personal pronouns, 250-260, 261-263, 265, 266, 269, 285; possessive, 62, 190, 191-192, 194, 195, 196-197, 201, 261; possessive, with gerund, 195, 261; of relative pronouns, 270, 271, 272, 274, 275-276, 278, 280-281

Clauses: conditional, 157; with conjunctive adverbs, 131, 133; connected by co-ordinate conjunctions, 124, 127, 137; without co-ordinate conjunctions, 129, 130, 137; definition of, 119, 123; dependent, as adjectives, 142, 147, 158, 160, 172, 180; dependent, as adverbs, 153-155, 157-160, 161-162, 163, 180; dependent, as appositives, 168; dependent, in complex sentences, 141; dependent, as direct objects, 166; dependent, as nouns, 165-168, 180; dependent, as objects of prepositions, 167-168; dependent, as predicate nouns, 166; dependent, as subjects, 166, 168; elliptical, 252; independent, 119, 123, 127; method for finding dependent, 158; parenthetical, 170-171, 173; placement of dependent, 155; punctuation of introductory, 161,

- 163; punctuation of nonrestrictive, 151, 179-180
- Colon: before an enumeration, 136-137; in business letter, 106, 107
- Comma: with appositives, 82, 84; after complimentary close of letter, 106, 107; in compound sentence, 124-125, 126-127, 137; in heading of letter, 106; with interjections, 103; with introductory adverbial clauses, 161, 163; with introductory phrases, 95-96, 101, 108; with nonrestrictive clauses, 151, 161-162, 163, 179, 180; with nouns of address, 103; in parallel word groups, 93-94; with parenthetical elements, 99, 101, 180; with participial phrase, 340; purpose of, 92; in quotations, 183; after salutation in letter, 106, 107; in series, 91-94, 97
- Comparison: comparative degree of, 291-292; irregular, 292; positive degree of, 289; regular, 290-291; rules for correct, 295; superlative degree of, 292-293
- Complements: definition of, 37, 38, 40, 43, 79; direct objects as, 39-41; kinds of, 39-40; predicate adjectives as, 40, 79; predicate nouns as, 40, 79
- Complex sentence: adjective clause in, 147, 160; adjective clause modifying a noun in, 172; adverb clause in, 153, 163; definition of, 141, 148, 151, 172; how to analyze a, 158; noun clause in, 165, 166, 167, 168; parenthetical clause in, 170, 173; punctuation of, 161, 163, 171, 173; and relative pronouns, 147, 160, 168; restrictive or nonrestrictive adjective clause in, 149-150, 151; and subordinate conjunctions, 154-156, 160, 171-173
- Compound elements: connected by a conjunction, 116; definition of, 116; as direct objects, 112; as modifiers, 112; as predicate nouns or adjectives, 112; in subjects, 111, 234
- Compound personal pronouns: 262, 263, 268
- Compound sentence: definition of, 120; punctuation of, 124-126, 127, 129, 133, 137; use of conjunctive adverbs in, 131, 132-133; use of co-ordinate conjunctions in, 124-125, 126-127
- Compound-complex sentence: 175-176
- Conjunctions: comma before, 124, 127, 130; co-ordinate, 124-125; definition of, 93, 116; most common co-ordinate, 125, 127; most common subordinate, 156; in series, 93; subordinate, 154-155; use of, 123, 137
- Conjunctive adverbs: definition of, 131, 132-133; most common, 132-133; preceded by semicolon, 133, 137; use of, in compound sentence, 131, 132-133
- Dash: 136-137
- Declarative sentence: 12
- Dependent clause: *see* Clauses
- Diagraming: *see* Analysis
- Direct address, noun in: 103

- Direct object: *see* Objects
- Double negative: 313-314
- Exclamation point: with exclamatory sentence, 12-13; with interjections, 103
- Exclamatory sentence: 12-13
- Expletives: 118, 232
- Fragments, sentence: changing, into sentences, 4, 6-7, 9-10; definition of, 1, 4
- Future tense: 214, 219-220, 223, 247
- Gender: 252
- Gerund: definition of, 195, 338; possessive case with, 195, 261
- Hyphen: 106-108
- Imperative mood: 328-329, 331, 344
- Imperative sentence: definition of, 12-13; subject unexpressed in, 56-57
- Indefinite pronouns: agreement of verbs with, 233; as antecedents of personal pronouns, 266; definition of, 76
- Independent clause: *see* Clauses
- Indicative mood: 328-329, 331, 344
- Indirect object: *see* Objects
- Infinitive: definition of, 204, 205, 333-335, 344; sign of, not expressed, 334-335, 344; tense of, 334-335; *to* not separated from rest of, 335; use of, as adjective, 334; use of, as adverb, 334; use of, as object, 334; use of, as subject, 333; voice of, 334, 335
- Interjections: definition of, 103; punctuation of, 103, 108
- Interrogation mark: *see* Question mark
- Interrogative pronouns: 62, 283
- Interrogative sentence: *see* Questions
- Intransitive verb: *see* Verbs
- Introductory phrase: 95, 97, 101, 108
- Inverted order: definition of, 32-34; how to recognize, 50
- Italics: 91
- Letters: punctuation of, 106-107
- Modifiers: adjectives as, 47, 48-50, 51, 52; adjective clauses as, 141-142, 143-147, 151, 158; adverb clauses as, 153-155, 156-158; adverbial nouns as, 62; adverbs as, 53, 54-56, 58, 60, 62, 63; definition of, 47; participles or participial phrases as, 338-341; possessive nouns as, 62; prepositional phrases as, 67-68, 69, 70, 73, 77, 78, 79
- Mood: definition of, 328; imperative, 328-329, 331, 344; indicative, 328-329, 331, 344; subjunctive, 328-330, 331, 344
- Nominative case: of personal pronouns, 250-254; of relative pronouns, 270, 271, 272, 276, 280-281
- Nonrestrictive element: 179
- Noun clause: definition of, 165, 180; as direct object, 166-167; as object of preposition, 167; as

- predicate noun, 166; as subject, 165-166
- Nouns: of address, 103; adverbial, 62, 63; in apposition, 82-84, 85-86; case of, 252; collective, 230-231; common, 87; as complements, 36-37; compound, 196-197; definition of, 24, 25, 28, 31; in direct address, 168; as direct objects, 39-41, 79; gender, 252; as indirect objects, 75, 77, 79; as modifiers, 62; number of, 185; as objects of prepositions, 68, 69; person of, 252; possessive, 62; predicate, 40-41, 79; proper, 86-87, 88; as subjects, 24, 25, 28, 31, 43; verbal, 195, 338
- Number: agreement of subject and verb in, 217, 230-235, 247; of collective nouns, 230-231; definition of, 185; formation of plural, 186-188; of pronouns, 233; of verbs, 217
- Objects: case of, 256, 259, 268; compound personal pronouns as, 262; direct, 39-40, 43, 256, 258; indirect, 75-77, 256, 268; nouns and pronouns as, 41, 69; of prepositions, 68, 73; relative pronouns as, 274; second, 258-259
- Objective case: *see* Case
- Parallel construction: definition of, 93; punctuation with, 93-94, 108; terms of series in, 93-94
- Parentheses: 100-101
- Parenthetical expressions: clauses as, 170-171, 173; definition of, 100-101; exclamations or interjections as, 103; nouns of address as, 103-104, 108; punctuation of, 100-101
- Participial phrase: 339
- Participles: as adjectives, 338-341; as parts of predicates, 215, 338-339; perfect tenses of, 215-220; position of, in sentence, 339-340; present, 209-211; tenses of, 323, 340-341, 344; voice of, 341, 344
- Part of speech: adjective as, 40, 59; adverb as, 54, 59; conjunction as, 93; definition of, 22, 43; interjection as, 103; noun as, 24, 43; preposition as, 68; pronoun as, 30; and use in sentence, 50; verb as, 22
- Passive Voice: 322-326, 344
- Period: with abbreviations, 106, 107; as end mark, 12-13
- Person: 252
- Personal pronouns: agreement of, with antecedents, 265, 268; compound, 261-263; definition of, 251; as direct objects, 35, 37, 38-41, 43, 256, 258; as indirect objects, 75-77, 256, 268; number, person, gender, case of, 251-252; possessive case of, 261; as predicate pronouns, 41, 253; of preposition, 68, 69, 256, 268; as second objects, 258, 259; as subjects, 251-252
- Phrases: adjective, 68, 69, 70-71, 79; adverb, 70-71, 73; definition of, 67; participial, 339-340; prepositional, 67-69, 79
- Plural number: of compound nouns, 196-197; of compound personal pronouns, 261; defini-

- tion of, 185; of foreign nouns, 196, 197; formation of, 185-188, 201; of letters and numbers, 195-196, 201; of personal pronouns, 251; of proper names, 194, 197; of titles, 197; of verbs, 214, 216-217
- Possessive case: of compound nouns, 196-197; definition of, 190; and formation of possessive forms, 191-192; with gerund, 199, 261; of names, 194; of personal pronouns, 261; of relative pronouns, 278, 281
- Predicate: adjective, 40, 47, 50, 79, 298, 300, 303; agreement of, with subject, 217, 230-235, 247; complete, 22, 30; compound, 111-112; definition of, 19-20, 28; in inverted order, 32-34; modifiers of, 53, 60, 79, 290, 298, 303; noun, 40, 41, 79; pronoun, 41, 79; in questions, 27; in regular order, 32-34; simple, 21-23, 25, 28, 30, 31, 34, 43
- Prepositions: common, 68; compound personal pronouns as objects of, 262-263; definition of, 69; noun clauses as objects of, 167-168; objects of, not expressed, 75, 77, 79; as parts of speech, 68; pronouns as objects of, 256, 259, 268; use of, 67-69, 73
- Principal parts of verbs: 204-205, 211, 246
- Pronouns: antecedents of, 147, 265-266, 268; as complements, 35-37; compound personal, 262-263, 268; definition of, 30, 31, 43; as direct objects, 43; indefinite, 76, 266; as indirect objects, 76; interrogative, 62, 283-284; as modifiers, 63; number, gender, person, case of, 251-254; as objects of prepositions, 68, 69; as parts of speech, 30; personal, 251-269; predicate, 41, 253, 254; relative, 142, 270-272, 274-276, 278-281; as simple subjects, 29-31, 34, 79
- Punctuation: *see* Apostrophe, Comma, Colon, Dash, Exclamation point, Hyphen, Italics, Parentheses, Period, Question mark, Quotation marks, Semicolon
- Questions: introduced by interrogative pronouns, 283; inverted order in, 32-34; punctuation of, 12-13; verb in, 27
- Question mark: 12-13
- Quotations: 182-183
- Quotation marks: 91, 182-183
- Relative pronouns: agreement of, with antecedent, 284; definition of, 142; as direct objects, 274-276; as modifiers, 278-279, 281; as objects of prepositions, 274-276; as subjects, 270-272, 276
- Salutation in letters: 104, 106, 107
- Second object: 258-259
- Semicolon: in compound sentence without conjunction, 129-130; before conjunctive adverb, 133, 137; in involved series, 182
- Sentence: capitalization in, 6, 7;

- declarative, 12; definition of, 1-2, 5-7, 9-10, 20, 23, 43, 79; exclamatory, 12-13; imperative, 12-13; interrogative, 12-13; inverted order of, 32-34; noun as subject of, 24-25, 28, 31, 43; parts of, 1, 19-20, 21-23, 25, 28, 31, 43, 79; pronoun as subject of, 29, 31, 43; regular order of, 32, 34; simple, 119. *See also* Complex sentence, Compound-complex sentence, Compound sentence
- Sentence sense: 15
- Series: colon with, 136-137; comma between terms of, 91-94, 97; semicolon in involved, 182
- Singular number: of collective nouns, 230-231; definition of, 185; of nouns, 237; and possessives, 190-192, 201; of pronouns, 233. *See also* Agreement
- Spelling: 188, 200-201
- Subject: adjective modifiers of, 47-49; agreement of, with verb, 230-235, 247; clauses as modifiers of, 142, 149-150; collective noun as, 230-231; complete, 34; compound, 111-114, 116; definition of, 1, 2, 19, 20, 28; nominative case for, 252, 254, 259; noun clause as, 165-166; phrases as modifiers of, 68-73; position of, in sentence, 32; simple, 24, 34, 43
- Subjunctive mood: 328-330, 331, 344
- Syllabication: 106
- Tense: definition of, 214; future, 214, 220; future perfect, 215, 220; past, 214-215, 220; past perfect, 215, 220; present, 214, 216-220, 235; present perfect, 215, 220
- Transitive verbs: definition of, 318-320; voice of, 322-326
- Verbals: *see* Gerund, Infinitive, Participles
- Verbs: of action, 22, 43; adverb modifiers of, 53-56, 60, 63, 290, 298, 303; adverbial clauses as modifiers of, 153-160; adverbial phrases as modifiers of, 70-73, 77; agreement of, with collective nouns, 230-231; agreement of, with compound subjects, 234; agreement of, with indefinite pronouns, 233-234; agreement of, with subject, 230-235, 247; auxiliary, 27-28, 208; complements of, 35-41, 43; definition of, 22, 23, 28; direct objects of, 35-41, 43, 256-258, 268; emphatic forms of, 223; indirect objects of, 75-77, 256, 259-268; infinitives of, 333-335; intransitive, 318-319; mood of, 328-331, 344; of more than one word, 26-28, 43; number of, 216-218; participles of, 338-341, 344; person of, 216-218, 220; principal parts of irregular, 206-208, 211, 246; principal parts of regular, 204-205, 209, 246; progressive forms of, 222; second objects of, 258, 259; as simple predicates, 21-23, 25, 34; spelling of, 238-240, 247; tenses of, 214-216, 220, 246-247; transitive, 318-320, 344; voice of, 322-326
- Voice: 323, 326

 WORDS THAT NEED SPECIAL STUDY

- accept, verb 244
 affect, verb 244
 ah, aha, interjections 103
 alas, interjection 103
 almost, adverb 312, 314
 although, subordinate conjunction 156
 and, co-ordinate conjunction .. 125
 any, adjective 76
 anyone, indefinite pronoun 76
 appear, verb 300
 army, collective noun 231
 as, subordinate conjunction . . 156
 as if, subordinate conjunction . 156
 ask, verb 75
 as soon as, subordinate conjunction 156
 as though, subordinate conjunction 156
 be, verb 38, 319, 330
 became, verb 22
 because, subordinate conjunction 156
 become, verb 22, 38, 319
 been, verb 22, 27
 being, verb 22
 besides, conjunctive adverb .. 132
 bevy, collective noun 231
 bring, verb 243
 but, co-ordinate conjunction
 125, 127
 can, auxiliary verb ... 27, 218, 243
 civics, noun 237
 class, collective noun 231
 close, adjective, adverb 301
 club, collective noun 231
 come, verb 243
 committee, collective noun .. 231
 company, collective noun 231
 consequently, conjunctive ad-
 verb 132
 cook, verb 75
 corps, collective noun 231
 could, auxiliary verb .. 27, 218, 243
 crowd, collective noun 231
 department, collective noun .. 231
 did, auxiliary verb 27, 223
 do, auxiliary verb
 27, 218-219, 223, 235
 does, auxiliary verb
 27, 218-219, 235
 duly, spelling 307, 308
 each, indefinite pronoun 266
 economics, noun 237
 effect, noun, verb 244
 even if, subordinate conjunction 156
 every, adjective 52, 76
 everybody, indefinite pronoun . 266
 everyone, indefinite pronoun .. 76
 exceed, spelling 245
 except, verb, preposition 244
 family, collective noun 231
 farther, adverb 312, 314
 fast, adjective, adverb 301

- feel, verb 300
 for, co-ordinate conjunction
 125, 127
 further, adverb 312, 314
 furthermore, conjunctive ad-
 verb 132
 get, verb 210
 good, adjective 301, 303
 group, collective noun 231
 grow, verb 300, 319
 had, auxiliary verb .. 27, 215, 247
 hanged, verb 249
 hard, adjective, adverb 301
 has, auxiliary verb 27
 have, auxiliary verb .. 27, 214, 247
 hence, conjunctive adverb 132
 herd, collective noun 231
 hung, verb 249
 in fact, conjunctive adverb ... 132
 is, verb 22, 27, 300
 it, expletive 232
 its, possessive pronoun .. 192, 261
 it's, contraction (it is) ... 192, 261
 jury, collective noun 231
 lay, verb 223-225, 228, 322
 learn, verb 244
 leave, verb 245
 lend, verb 75
 let, verb 245
 lie, verb 223-225, 228, 322
 likewise, conjunctive adverb .. 132
 look, verb 300
 loud, adjective, adverb 301
 many, adjective 52
 mathematics, noun 237
 may, auxiliary verb .. 27, 218, 243
 me, pronoun 253
 measles, noun 237
 might, auxiliary verb .. 27, 218, 243
 moreover, conjunctive adverb .. 132
 most, adjective 312, 314
 mumps, noun 237
 navy, collective noun 231
 news, collective noun 237
 no, parenthetical word 103
 nor, co-ordinate conjunction
 125, 127
 not, adverb 54, 313
 of, preposition 243
 oh, interjection 103
 one, adjective 52
 one, indefinite pronoun ... 76, 266
 or, co-ordinate conjunction 125, 127
 orchestra, collective noun 231
 otherwise, conjunctive adverb
 132-133
 ought, auxiliary verb 220
 physics, noun 237
 politics, noun 237
 precede, verb 245
 proceed, verb 245
 provided, subordinate conjunc-
 tion 156
 quick, adjective, adverb 301
 raise, verb 226-228, 322
 real, adjective 301, 303
 really, adverb 301, 303
 regiment, collective noun 231
 right, adjective, adverb 301
 rise, verb 226-228, 322

- school, collective noun 231
 seem, verb 22, 300
 send, verb 75
 set, verb 225-226, 322
 shall, auxiliary verb
 27, 214, 215, 219-220, 247
 should, auxiliary verb 27
 since, subordinate conjunction . 156
 sit, verb 225-226, 322
 slow, adjective, adverb 301
 smell, verb 300, 319
 so, conjunctive adverb 133
 some, adjective 311, 314
 somewhat, adverb 311, 314
 sound, verb 300
 squad, collective noun 231
 squadron, collective noun 231
 succeed, verb 245
 sure, adjective, adverb 301

 take, verb 75, 243
 taste, verb 300, 319
 teach, verb 75, 244
 tell, verb 75
 that, adjective 271, 312
 that, demonstrative pronoun .. 271
 that, relative pronoun
 142, 271, 280
 that, subordinate conjunction
 167, 271
 then, conjunctive adverb 133
 thence, conjunctive adverb ... 133
 this, adjective 52, 312, 314
 though, subordinate conjunc-
 tion 156
 throw, verb 75
 tight, adjective, adverb 301

 was, auxiliary verb 27
 well, adjective, adverb ... 301, 303
 well, interjection 103
 were, verb 22, 27
 what, interrogative adjective .. 61
 what, interrogative pronoun .. 62
 what, relative pronoun 166
 whatever, relative pronoun ... 166
 when, subordinate conjunction
 11, 156
 whenever, subordinate conjunc-
 tion 11, 156
 where, subordinate conjunc-
 tion 156, 171
 whereas, conjunctive adverb .. 133
 wherever, subordinate conjunc-
 tion 154, 156
 which, relative pronoun . 142, 280
 while, conjunctive adverb 133
 while, subordinate conjunction 156
 who, relative pronoun 142, 271, 281
 whom, relative pronoun
 142, 274, 281
 whose, relative pronoun
 142, 278, 281
 will, verb ... 27, 214, 215, 219-220
 would, auxiliary verb 27
 write, verb 75
 wrong, adjective, adverb 301

 yes, parenthetical word 103
 you, pronoun 234

